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PROBLEMS OF TEACHER PERSONNEL

in

MONTANA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

by

ROBERT EDWARD SONNEMAN

B.A., State Teachers College, Valley City, North Dakota, 1926

Presented in partial fulfillment of the  
requirement for the Degree of  
Master of Arts

State University of Montana

1935

Approved:

*Freeman Daugherty*

Chairman of Board of Examiners

*N. G. Bateman*

Chairman of Committee on Graduate Study

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Robert E. Sonneman

May 15, 1935

## CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

I. IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM

The classroom teacher is the fundamental unit in the educational personnel of the public schools. The schools exist for the purpose of accomplishing the tasks of the teacher. Supervisors, principals, superintendents, and school boards bend their energies to accomplish the purposes and objectives of classroom instruction. How may a school system secure and retain the services of highly gifted, well qualified, thoroughly trained, and skillful teachers? This is the crux of the problem of public education in Montana and the nation. It is both a local and a statewide problem of the first magnitude.

"Good teachers are a valuable asset to any school system; poor teachers are a liability. The latter are expensive in that they require excessive amounts of supervision and administration, frequently undo the work of good teachers, are difficult to eliminate, and often disturb the equilibrium and morale of the whole teaching corps. Pupils are entitled to the best teachers obtainable."<sup>1</sup>

An important part of the superintendent's work has to do with his relation to the teaching force. The greater portion of his time and energy must be given to the personnel problems of the teacher. These have to do with the professional training of the teacher, and with increasing the efficiency of the teacher who is actually a member of his school system. The task of maintaining the standard of efficiency frequently carries with it the nec-

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I. Deffenbaugh, W. S., and Zeigel, William H. "The Selection and Appointment of Teachers" Monograph 12, Bulletin 17, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 1932, p. 2.

essity of separating from the corps those who, for various reasons, do not come up to desirable standards. Problems of turnover of teachers and the increasing of the permanency of tenure, problems dealing with maintaining high standards of physical and intellectual vigor on the part of the teaching corps, all require the use of the greatest tact, wisdom, and diplomacy on the part of the executive head of the school system.

## II. NATURE AND PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

The present study has two major objectives: (1) Wherever possible, to ascertain sound principles with respect to several selected problems of teacher personnel, and (2) to determine the status of current practice in Montana public schools upon these personal problems.

Seven problems of teacher personnel have been selected for study and investigation. Each one will be treated in a separate chapter. These problems are:

1. The professional training and qualifications of teachers
2. The selection and appointment of teachers
3. Reelection, tenure, and dismissal of teachers
4. Teachers' salaries and salary schedules
5. The status of married women teachers
6. The problem of home talent teachers
7. Teacher-community relationships

"The whole field of teacher personnel has been relatively neglected by students of education. The problems of this field deserve a far larger share of the attention of scientific workers in education than they have received in the past."<sup>2</sup> But there have been some hopeful

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2. National Education Association, Research Division, "Practices Affecting Teacher Personnel", Research Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 4, September, 1928, Washington, D.C., p. 209.



developments in recent years. The progress made has been well summarized by Almack:

"The review of the field of teacher personnel administration shows that a number of major developments have occurred in the past quarter century and encourages the belief that improvements of an equally important nature will occur in the future. The certification of teachers has been made very largely a state responsibility with state-wide minimum standards which any local district may exceed but may not avoid. The crucial problem in personnel administration is the selection of teachers... Present methods are characterized by an active search for suitable candidates and a steadily increasing standard of training.

"There is a definite trend toward connecting the teachers' salaries with some measure of efficiency, although existing efficiency ratings leave much to be desired. Discriminations between men and women as far as salary is concerned, and between elementary and secondary school teachers, are disappearing. Unusual merit is being encouraged by offering special salary increments for additional training.....Within the past five years the problem of teacher tenure has been attacked for the first time from the research point of view and a considerable body of factual data on the effects of certain types of tenure legislation is already in existence.

"A relatively short time ago teaching offered a career of little attractiveness. Few teachers were adequately trained. No teacher could rest assured of a job for more than a single year. Salaries were low and the teaching 'procession' was the usual substitute for the teaching 'profession'. Today much of this has been changed and teaching begins to offer a real career to young people... It is the function of personnel administrators in the schools to hold the gains already made and to advance further as opportunity offers in the future. Personnel administration is concerned with placing a trained and competent teacher in every classroom, and upon its success depends ultimately the success of the school system as a whole."<sup>3</sup>

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3. Almack, John C. Modern School Administration, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1933, p. 71f.

Almack, writing in 1933 at the depth of the depression, expresses a hopeful view of the situation. Recent developments in Montana upon these problems of personnel would hardly warrant such an optimistic outlook. Many of the administrators who responded to the author's questionnaire expressed rather doleful opinions about these personnel problems, particularly in respect to the future of salaries, salary schedules, and rewards for professional improvement.

### III. PREVIOUS STUDIES IN THIS FIELD

No study exactly comparable to the one being undertaken here has come to the attention of the writer. However there are a number of studies of selected problems of teacher personnel which may be reviewed briefly. The most important of these follow.

The United States Office of Education<sup>4</sup> has made an exhaustive study of the practices employed in the selection and appointment of teachers. This study was published in 1932 and is among the most recent survey literature in this field. The purposes of the study, according to the bulletin, are twofold: "(1) To determine the status of current practice in the selection and appointment of teachers, and (2) to identify and study intensively the practices in some of those public schools where the procedures followed in selecting and appointing teachers are unusual or innovating."<sup>5</sup> Frequent reference will be made to this study in the present investigation particularly in the second and third chapters.

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4. Deffenbaugh, J. S., and Zeigel, William H., "The Selection and Appointment of Teachers", Bulletin 17, Monograph 12, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 1932, 115 pp.

5. Ibid., p. 8

The Research Division of the National Education Association conducted two relatively recent studies in the field of teacher personnel which will also be drawn upon throughout the present study. The first of these, "Practices Affecting Teacher Personnel,"<sup>6</sup> was published in 1928, and the second, "Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers",<sup>7</sup> appeared in 1932 and supersedes somewhat the data contained in the earlier issue. Both bulletins present material pertinent to a number of practical problems concerned with the management of teacher personnel.

A great number of investigations have been made upon one specific phase or problem of teacher personnel. Among these are studies of the form and content of teachers' printed application blanks. Keller<sup>8</sup> analyzed 72 application blanks used in school districts of Pennsylvania of less than 1000 enrollment. Adams<sup>9</sup> analyzed 75 application blanks from cities of all sizes in Texas. Crawford<sup>10</sup> analyzed 120 blanks coming from cities at large and varying in population from 10,000 to 250,000. Tiegs<sup>11</sup> evaluated a number of techniques of teacher selection, including application blanks, recommendation blanks, and teacher rating scales.

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6. National Education Association, Research Division, "Practices Affecting Teacher Personnel", Research Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 4, September, 1928.

7. National Education Association, Research Division, "Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers", Research Bulletin, Vol. X, No. 1, Parts I and II, January and March, 1932.

8. Keller, Frank, "Use of Teachers' Application Blanks", Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1928, 64 pp.

9. Adams, Logan S., "Selecting, Assigning and Starting the New Teacher", Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Texas, 1926, 100 pp.

10. Crawford, Lawrence, T., "The Selection of Teachers", Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of California, 1930, 85 pp.

11. Tiegs, E. W., An Evaluation of Some Techniques of Teacher Selection, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, 1928.

Likewise many studies of salaries and salary schedules have been made. A few of these will be briefly reviewed. Morris,<sup>12</sup> in his study The Single Salary Schedule investigated practices employed in paying teachers in selected cities throughout the United States. His conclusions favor the adoption of the single salary schedule as the most effective means of teacher remuneration. Lewis<sup>13</sup> also investigated the matter of salary scheduling and concluded in favor of the single salary scale. Young<sup>14</sup> studied the merit type of teachers' salary schedules in fifty-nine leading cities reporting to the National Education Association that teachers' annual salary increments were based upon merit ratings.

The matter of teacher tenure has given rise to a number of worthwhile investigations, a few of which are treated briefly here. The Committee of One Hundred on Tenure,<sup>15</sup> reporting in 1930, denounced annual reelection of teachers and advocated indefinite tenure. In a doctor's dissertation Holmstedt<sup>16</sup> investigated the effect of teacher tenure laws in New Jersey. He states that his study is "An attempt to analyze certain effects of the teacher tenure law in the State of New Jersey by comparison with conditions

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12. Morris, Lyle L., The Single Salary Schedule, Contributions to Education, No. 413, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1930, 78 pp.

13. Lewis, E.E., The Single Salary Schedule, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, February, 1926, p. 215.

14. Young, Lloyd P., "The Administration of Merit-Type Teachers' Salary Schedules", Contributions to Education, No. 552, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, 1933, 98 pp.

15. Rowland, A. L., "Report of the Committee of One Hundred on Tenure Problems", National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1930, p. 196.

16. Holmstedt, R. W., "Effects of Teacher Tenure Laws in New Jersey", Contributions to Education, No. 526, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1932, 102 pp.

in Connecticut which state has no tenure law". Hunter<sup>17</sup> presents evidence to show that tenure laws make the teaching profession more attractive to capable young people.

The controversial problem of the married woman teacher has brought forth a number of interesting studies. Peters<sup>18</sup> investigated "The Status of the Married Woman Teacher". He conducted the investigation in Virginia but drew other material from selected schools throughout the United States. He states his objective as follows: "This study attempts to determine, through analysis and evaluation of certain factors related to teaching effectiveness, whether or not the fact of marriage is likely to condition teaching results of the married woman".<sup>19</sup> His conclusions will be incorporated into the sixth chapter of the present study. Dr. David Snedden<sup>20</sup> treats the matter of prejudice against married women in a recent issue of the Nation's Schools. He analyzes six common prejudices and draws conclusions thereon. McGinnes<sup>21</sup> also made nationwide survey of the status of the married woman teacher. He found that the larger cities were more liberal in the policy of permitting the married women to continue teaching, and that as the

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17. Hunter, Fred M., "Teacher Tenure in the United States", National Education Association, 1927, pp. 223-24.

18. Peters, D.W., "The Status of the Married Woman Teacher", Contributions to Education, No. 603, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1934, 96 pp.

19. Ibid, p. 3

20. Snedden, David, "A Sociologist Discusses the Problem of the Married Woman Teacher", The Nation's Schools, Vol. III, No. 5, May, 1929.

21. McGinnes, W. C., "The Married Woman Teacher", School Executives Magazine, June, 1931, pp. 451-53.

size of the city decreased the prejudice against married women increased. Other studies on the comparative efficiency of married and un-married teachers will be reviewed in the sixth chapter.

The problem of the home talent teacher has grown increasingly acute during the depression. Three studies have come to the author's attention. The Research Division of the National Education Association<sup>22</sup> study, the Office of Education<sup>23</sup> survey of teacher selection, and the investigation conducted by Cooke and Blackwell<sup>24</sup> in Texas, all indicate a marked increase, during the present depression, in school board rules and regulations which require that preference in appointment should be given to home talent teachers who apply for positions. These surveys will be reported in more detail in Chapter VII of the present study.

The contractual status of teachers has given rise to considerable educational research. In a nationwide study of this problem, Anderson<sup>25</sup> found that only 8 percent of school systems over 2500 population do not use contracts. He found contracts almost universally used in small cities and rural schools but in larger cities, while contracts were employed, he found frequent exceptions to

their use. Allen<sup>26</sup> also conducted an investigation of the contrac-

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22. National Education Association, Research Division, op. cit. p. 27.

23. Deffenbaugh and Zeigel, op. cit., pp 27-29.

24. Cooke, D. H. and Blackwell, Robert H. "Employment of Home Talent (Local) Teachers", George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., January, 1933, pp 5-6.

25. Anderson, Carl W. "Teacher's Contracts and Legal Phases of Teacher Status", Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927, 180 pp.

26. Allen, Ira M. "The Teachers' Contractual Status", Contributions to Education, No. 304, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1928, 148 pp.

tual status of teachers. His study is an attempt "to determine the nature and characteristics of the contractual relationship between boards of education and public school teachers; the conditions, standards, and principles involved in such contractual status; the rights and liabilities of the contracting parties; and the relationship between the teacher's contractual and professional status."

The foregoing summary of investigations in the field of teacher personnel is by no means complete. Rather it includes those treatises which have been most helpful in the preparation of the present study, and from which quotations will be made in the subsequent chapters.

#### IV. METHODS AND SCOPE OF THIS STUDY.

The data for this study have been secured primarily from three sources: (1) Professional literature and investigations dealing with problems of teacher personnel; (2) check lists sent to the principals and superintendents of the first, second, and third class district school systems and to the county high school principals in the State of Montana, and (3) responses and materials sent to the author by the school administrators who responded to the questionnaire.

Table I gives the number of the four classes of schools to whom inquiries were sent and the number and percentage of replies received.

Table I: Number and Percentage of Montana School Administrators who Answered and Returned Questionnaires in this Study.

District	Key No.	Number sent	Number returned	Percent returned
First Class	I	6	4	66.7
Second Class	II	70	49	70.0
Third Class	III	102	64	63.8
Co. High School	IV	18	11	61.1
Total		196	128	65.3

The schools in this table are grouped according to the four classifications found in the Montana Educational Directory for 1934-35, into first, second, and third class districts and county high schools. In order to facilitate comparison between the four classes of schools in Montana, the data will be tabulated under the captions mentioned in the table.

As a further aid to our analysis of the data, the types of school organizations found in Montana are presented at this point. This information will be beneficial particularly in the study of training and experience requirements of Montana teachers, and in the analysis of salary schedules.

Table II. Types of School Organizations Reported by Montana School Administrators.

Type of Organization	Frequencies by districts				Total	Per Cent
	I	II	III	IV		
8-4 type	1	24	45	*	70	54.68
6-6 type	1	9	12	*	22	17.18
6-3-3 type	0	2	2	*	4	3.12
6-2-4 type	1	6	5	*	12	9.37
Grade school only	1	8	0	*	9	7.03
County high school	0	0	0	11	11	8.59
Number reported	4	49	64	11	128	100.00

\*County high schools do not maintain elementary or junior high school grades.

The data obtained from the 128 replies to the questionnaire, coming from the various classes, types, and sizes of school sys-



tems have been relied upon to show the present status of the several problems of teacher personnel in Montana public schools. This study is subject to the limitations of the questionnaire method of obtaining data. But the author firmly believes the information is reliable; as reliable as the school administrators themselves.

#### V. DEFINITIONS AND EXPLANATIONS

In the first and second class districts, the administrative head of the system is termed the superintendent; in the third class districts he may be either superintendent or principal, while in the county high school he is termed the principal. In this study, "administrator" is interpreted to apply to both superintendents and principals who receive their authority directly from the board of school trustees, and who are in charge of the school system.

A first class district is one which has a population of eight thousand or more; it employs a superintendent who has had at least five years of experience in school work and it is controlled by a board of seven trustees.

A second class district is one which has a population of one thousand or more, but less than eight thousand; it employs a superintendent who has had at least three years of experience in public school work, and it is controlled by a board of five trustees.

A third class district is one which has a population less than one thousand; it employs a superintendent and principal or either; it is controlled by a board of three trustees. Many third class districts have several rural schools in addition to the town school. As these rural schools are supervised almost entirely by the county superintendents, they are not included in this study.

A county high school is under the control of a principal; it is administered in most cases independently of any district school system; funds for its maintenance are derived from a uniform county levy. The board of trustees consists of seven members of whom the county superintendent is one and the remaining six are appointed by the County Commissioners.

#### VI. PRESENTATION OF DATA

It is the general plan of this study to give, in statistical tables, an accurate presentation of the original data. An analysis and discussion will accompany each table when such is needed. In most of the tables percentages are employed to give a more vivid impression of the conditions and problems studied, and to facilitate comparisons with other studies in the field. In a few instances, where applicable, medians are employed to measure central tendencies.

The percentages in most of the statistical tables are computed upon the basis of the 128 Montana school systems participating in this study. Exceptions to or explanations of this procedure will now be noted to aid the reader in interpreting the data: (1) Some administrators checked more than one item in Tables VI, IX, XIII, XIV, XV, and XVIII, but percentages therein are based on 128 schools participating because the data logically lend themselves to such interpretation; (2) some administrators did not answer all the questions listed in Tables VII, XI, XVII, XIX, XXVIII, XXXI, and XXXIV. Where the sum of the "Yes-No" percentages does not equal 100 percent, the difference indicates those schools which did not

respond to all of the questions contained in these tables; (3) in Tables XX and XXI the percentages are based on the number of schools reporting salary discriminations in favor of men and married men teachers; (4) in Tables XXIX and XXX the percentages are computed on the basis of 62 schools reporting the employment of married women teachers; and (5) in Tables XXXII and XXXIII the percentages are calculated upon the basis of 77 schools reporting the employment of home talent teachers. Notations similar to these are made in each table as it appears in this thesis.

The data are tabulated under headings I, II, III, and IV to represent respectively the first, second and third class districts, and county high schools in Montana. This will enable the reader to make comparison between the different classes of school districts. Many interesting conditions which reveal themselves in such comparisons will be readily understood when the class and size of district is taken into consideration. The questionnaire employed as the basis for this investigation may be found in the appendix.

## CHAPTER II

## PROFESSIONAL TRAINING AND QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

I. DESIRABLE MINIMUM TRAINING.

In general we may say that no one is prepared to tell exactly the amount and kind of training which best prepared for teaching. Under such circumstances, the only guide we have is the judgment of authorities in education. Among these authorities there is agreement on the minimum training necessary. For elementary teachers this is two years in a standard normal school. For high school teachers the minimum is graduation from a standard college or university, with twenty to thirty credits in professional work.

Cubberley vigorously advocates such a minimum as follows:

"For present day school work, graduation from a high school with a good two-year normal course is not too high a standard to insist upon for elementary school teachers. . . . Graduation from a good college or university with special preparation in some line or lines of secondary school instruction and some professional study in addition is not too much to demand of teachers in the high school."<sup>27</sup>

Lewis argues for a similar minimum standard:

"A reasonable minimum standard for teachers in grades one to six would be graduation from a two-year normal school . . . . Graduation from a four-year normal school or teachers' college course would be still better and is now the goal in a few cities. The standard for high school teaching is already graduation from college."<sup>28</sup>

Myers sums up the consensus of opinion on this point as follows:

"The day has passed in American education when it is necessary to prove that one year of training beyond high

27. Cubberley, E.P., Public School Administration, Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, 1929, p. 339.

28. Lewis, E. E., Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff, The Century Co., New York, 1926, p. 58-59.

school was an insufficient amount of training for teachers. No important recommendation or proposal regarding training requirements for teaching has been made within the last ten years which contemplated a minimum training of less than two years beyond high school for elementary teachers and four years for high school teachers."<sup>29</sup>

There are those who maintain that the minimum standards advocated in the preceding paragraphs are insufficient. Robinson says:

"It requires no prophet to predict that within the next ten years the leadership in elementary education will have shifted to persons whose professional preparation represents the equivalent of the standard four years college curriculum."<sup>30</sup>

Buckingham contends also that the two year course is insufficient. He believes that "The goal should be a four year course for every teacher; and this goal should not be visionary. It should at this moment form part of the plans of our educational leaders; its realization should be anticipated at an early date."<sup>31</sup>

Cook goes still farther when he proposes that "By 1940 minimum scholarship requirements should be the equivalent of a master's degree for all teachers."<sup>32</sup> He modifies this statement a little later by saying, "However, it may be expedient to require a minimum of only four years of college training for elementary school teachers for a few years longer."<sup>33</sup>

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29. Myers, A. F., "A Teacher Training Program for Ohio", Contributions to Education, No. 286, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1927, p. 108.

30. Robinson, W. M. "Preparation of Teachers," Office of Education, Bulletin 1927, No. 36, Washington, D. C., p. 34.

31. Buckingham, B. R., "Supply and Demand in Teacher Training", Ohio State University Studies, Vol. II, No. 15, Monograph 4, Columbus, Ohio, March 15, 1928, p. 154.

32. Cooke, D. H., Problems of the Teaching Profession, Longmans-Green and Co., New York, 1933, p. 60.

33. Ibid., p. 60.

Almack and Lang are less certain as to the desirability of requiring more than a two year minimum training period for elementary teachers: "We have no conclusive evidence that it is worth while to extend the training period this far. It is better to set down a reasonable standard . . . and increase this minimum in the light of future experience and investigation."<sup>34</sup>

## II. TRAINING REQUIREMENTS IN MONTANA SCHOOLS.

Table III, below, shows the number of years of training required of newly appointed teachers in Montana public schools. These minimum educational qualifications may be determined by at least four agencies: (1) The school laws of the State of Montana; (2) the Department of Public Instruction requirements for the certification of teachers; (3) accrediting agencies which require minimum preparation of teachers as a prerequisite to the accrediting of schools; and (4) local boards of education which may promulgate standards and minimum qualifications above the level required by the Department of Public Instruction or by accrediting agencies.

Table III: Educational Qualifications of Newly Appointed Teachers in Montana Public Schools.

Years of training beyond high school graduation	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
Elementary teachers				*		
Two years	3	43	61		107	91.45
Three years	1	1	2		4	3.42
Four years	0	5	1		6	5.13
No report	0	0	0		0	0.00
Junior high school teachers				*		
Two years	0	2	4		6	14.63
Three years	0	3	2		5	12.19
Four years	2	10	14		26	63.42
No report	2	2	0		4	9.76
Senior high school teachers						
Two years	0	0	0		0	0.00
Three years	0	0	0		0	0.00
Four years	3	40	64	11	118	92.18
No report	1	9	0	0	10	7.82

\*County high schools do not maintain elementary or junior H.S. grades.

34. Almack, J.C. and Lang, A.H., Problems of the Teaching Profession, Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, 1925, pp. 23-24.

All of the 117 schools having elementary grades require a minimum of two years of training for elementary teachers. Four schools have increased this requirement to three years and six systems have set the minimum at four years. These requirements exceed those reported in the nationwide study made by the National Education Association.<sup>35</sup> In all groups of cities throughout the nation, 75 percent required two years of training, 16 percent required three years and 6 percent four years. Moreover, 3 percent permitted less than two years, whereas in Montana, not a single school system reported that less than two years were acceptable.

Of the 41 school systems operating on a junior high school plan, 26 systems, representing 63 percent, fixed the training standard at four years, 14 percent required only two years and 12 percent compromised upon three years as a minimum requirement for newly appointed teachers. Comparison of these data with the National Education Association report<sup>36</sup> again shows that Montana excels. In the latter study 50 percent of the schools require four years, 24 percent require three years and two years respectively, and 1 percent require less than two years.

In the senior high schools of Montana, 92 percent of the 123 schools require four years of training and 8 percent did not report. This correlates closely with the nationwide study<sup>37</sup> which shows that in 94 percent of the schools, senior high school teachers must possess four years of training.

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35. National Education Association, Research Division, op.cit., p.8.

36. Ibid., p. 8.

37. Ibid., p. 8.

In both the present study and the investigation of the National Education Association higher qualifications are required for senior high school teachers than for junior high school teachers, and higher qualifications are required for junior high school teachers than for elementary school teachers.

### III. REQUIREMENTS CONCERNING EXPERIENCE

The importance attached commonly to the factor of experience is made evident by even a cursory examination of the methods which administrators employ to secure information relative to the nature and extent of a candidate's teaching experience.

In its investigation of practices in the selection of teachers the Office of Education found that "More than 85 percent of the application blanks studied request the location of schools where candidates have taught, more than 80 percent request the length of experience, and almost 80 percent request the grade or subjects taught."<sup>38</sup>

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<sup>38</sup>. Deffenbaugh and Zeigel, op. cit., p. 18.



**Table IV: Regulations Concerning Prior Teaching Experience of Newly Appointed Teachers.**

Years of prior experience required	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
Elementary teachers				*		
None	2	20	32		54	46.15
One year	0	6	12		18	15.39
Two years	2	17	17		36	30.77
Three years	0	4	1		5	4.27
Four years or more	0	0	0		0	0.00
No report	0	2	2		4	3.42
Junior high school teachers				*		
None	0	6	6		12	29.27
One year	1	0	7		8	19.51
Two years	0	6	7		13	31.71
Three years	0	1	0		1	2.44
Four years or more	1	0	0		1	2.44
No report	2	4	0		6	14.63
Senior high school teachers						
None	1	23	42	3	69	53.90
One year	1	3	12	2	18	14.06
Two years	1	13	7	6	27	21.09
Three years	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
Four years or more	1	0	0	0	1	.78
No report	0	10	3	0	13	10.15

\* County high schools do not maintain elementary or junior high school grades.

The table shows that 46 percent of the 117 elementary schools studied require no prior experience for newly appointed elementary teachers, while 15 percent require one year, 30 percent insist upon two years and 4 percent three years. Of the 41 schools operating on the junior high school basis, 29 percent require no experience, more than 19 percent require one year, while 35 percent require two years or more for junior high school teachers. In the senior high school department, 54 percent of the 128 <sup>cooperating</sup> schools will employ teachers with no prior experience, while 14 percent require one year and 22 percent two or more years.

"The National Education Association reports that 59 percent of the school systems require no experience prior to appointment to elementary school positions, and 47 percent require none for appointment to junior and senior high school positions. One year of experience is required in

18 percent for appointment to all levels, two years of experience are required in about 22 percent of the systems for elementary school positions and in about 30 percent of the<sup>39</sup> systems for both junior and senior high school positions."

In a comparison of the data concerning experience requirements in the present study with the National Education Association Survey, in Montana a smaller percentage of schools will employ candidates without prior teaching experience in the elementary and junior high school divisions, whereas the situation is reversed in the senior high school department. This appears to be due to the teacher supply and demand situation; there is relatively a smaller supply of senior high school teachers in Montana, consequently some local schools set less rigid experience standards for newly appointed teachers in their high schools.

#### IV. DETERMINING EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS AND EXPERIENCE REQUIREMENTS.

The minimum educational qualifications of teachers in Montana may be determined by four agencies, mentioned in a preceding section. The experience requirements, however, are largely a matter of local concern. The Department of Public Instruction intervenes here only in the matter of certification. Local school administrators and boards may set up additional standards for training and experience. Table V reveals the distribution of authority upon these matters among local school officials.

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30. Deffenbaugh and Zeigel, op. cit., p. 18.

**Table V: Location of Administrative Authority for Determining Educational Qualifications and Prior Teaching Experience of Newly Appointed Teachers.**

School officials who set standards of training and experience	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
Superintendent of schools	0	17	24	0	41	32.05
Principal of high school	0	0	0	3	3	2.34
Supt. and Prin in cooperation	0	1	2	0	3	2.34
Board of trustees	1	5	9	2	17	13.28
Committee of board	0	0	1	0	1	.78
Supt. and board cooperating	3	26	28	4	61	47.65
No report	0	0	0	2	2	1.58
Number reporting	4	49	64	11	128	100.00

In 32 percent of the schools the superintendent of schools prescribes the educational qualifications and prior teaching experience required of newly appointed teachers. The superintendent and board cooperate in fixing these standards in more than 47 percent of the schools reporting, while the board of trustees itself exercises this power in 13 percent. The county high school principal, who is the administrative head of the system, determines these standards in 3 cases. A wholesome situation in this regard exists in Montana when, in nearly 50 percent of the schools, the school administrators and board work in cooperation for the upbuilding of the professional standards of their own schools.

#### V. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.

There is rather complete unanimity among authorities on educational administration that elementary teachers should have not less than two years and that beginning high school teachers should have not less than four years of preparation beyond high school graduation. Those authorities who favor the elimination of all salary and training distinctions fix the minimum training for all teaching positions at four years above the high school.

Two years of preparation beyond high school graduation is the minimum local standard of training in Montana for elementary teachers\*, and four years is the minimum for high school teachers. Not a single school system reported requirements less than these, and more than 8 percent of the elementary schools required three or more years of training. The educational requirements for elementary and junior high school teachers in Montana exceed those reported in the National Education Association survey; in the senior high school department they correlate very closely.

Approximately 50 percent of the administrators state that elementary teachers in their systems must have prior teaching experience; 45 percent of the administrators require junior high school teachers to have previous experience, and 35 percent state that senior high school teachers will not be employed without experience. Slightly more than 46 percent of the schools of Montana will employ elementary teachers without prior experience, 30 percent will employ inexperienced junior high school teachers, and 54 percent require no experience of newly appointed senior high school teachers.

School administrators and their boards of trustees cooperate in establishing the training and experience requirements for newly appointed teachers in 50 percent of the schools in Montana. The board exercises this power alone in 13 percent, and in 32 percent, the board delegates this responsibility to the school administrator.

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\*Local standard. State minimum certification standard is 72 quarter credits until 1936, after which it also will be two years and 96 quarter credits.

## CHAPTER III.

## THE SELECTION AND APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS.

I. IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM

One of the most important duties that confront a superintendent is to secure a good corps of teachers. On his ability to secure and hold well qualified teachers, more than on anything else, will depend his success and the success of the schools.

Reeder says:

"Of the multifarious, varied and difficult tasks of the persons who have the responsibility of administering the schools there is none whose performance begets greater benefits for those for whom the schools exist . . . than the selection of a competent teaching personnel. . . . Compared with teachers, such things as buildings, equipment and supplies . . . are of secondary importance."<sup>40</sup>

Lewis adds to this view when he states that "The best means of improving a school system is to improve the teachers. One of the most effective means of improving the teaching corps is by wise selection."<sup>41</sup>

II. WHY THE SCHOOL BOARD SHOULD NOT SELECT TEACHERS.

The board method of teacher selection has persisted in our public schools, but it is being rapidly replaced by a method more likely to result in the selection of a better type of teachers.

Cubberley points out the defects of this method:

"In the first place boards of laymen are not specially competent persons to make such selection . . . . They are more or less unconsciously influenced by local considerations which have nothing to do with the fitness of the candidate . . . . Personal relationships with the candidate and sympathy for her counts with them far too much; professional merit

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40. Reeder, Ward C., Fundamentals of Public School Administration, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1930, p. 85.

41. Lewis, op. cit., pp. 306-307.

and adaptability to the work of instruction, for which they have no standards of judging, count far too little. Professional preparation and success, too, are not appraised at their full worth, nor are the numerous personal factors that go to make up a successful teacher.

"In the second place, the range of selection usually is much too narrow. Boards of education almost always wait for applicants, and then select from those who apply. The local candidate has the inside track, can bring plenty of pressure to bear and usually secures the position.

"The result is that not only are improper persons often selected for teaching positions, but the educational and professional preparation and standards of those individuals in the community who decide to take up teaching are seriously influenced by such bases of selection. The whole professional tone of the school system is lowered, and this in turn tends to keep down the compensation of those already in the school system." 42

Almack and Lang likewise vigorously denounce the board method of teacher selection:

"At one time teachers were uniformly selected and elected by the school board . . . . The method has nothing to commend it. In the first place, the board members are seldom competent judges of a teacher's qualifications. They seldom know what the requirements for the positions should be. They may be easily influenced by factors what have no relation at all to a teacher's ability. Personal friendships, the wish of a leading citizen, or membership in a certain political party or church may decide the case.

"Under such circumstances outside forces are likely to control appointments. If more than one position is to be filled, the members may compromise their differences by representing all parties . . . . In some instances, in order to escape the charge of partiality to any particular church, equal representation is maintained in the teaching staff. Some school boards consider only the pictures of candidates. In other districts, the clerk virtually makes the appointment by presenting to the board only the applications which meet his approval." 43

### III. SELECTION BY THE SUPERINTENDENT AND BOARD IN COOPERATION.

Almack and Lang advocate cooperation between the superintendent and board in the selection of teachers:

"The professional method of election demands cooperation

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42. Cubberley, op. cit., pp. 306-307.

43. Almack and Lang, op. cit., p. 39.

between the superintendent and the school board. Nominations are made by the superintendent, and only after a careful searching out of the best talent he can find . . . . This is the only method that secures properly qualified teachers. It is the best method for teachers themselves, since they know that personal or political "pull" or other type of undesirable influence has not been responsible for their selection or defeat. It is the only method that is fair to the children and to the people." <sup>44</sup>

In the following, Cubberley also supports this method of teacher selection:

"No one can be more interested in securing the best teachers available than is the superintendent of schools; no one knows better the needs of positions than he; no one is likely to be able to discriminate better as to preparation, professional attitude, and adaptability, than is he; and no one is less likely to engage in nepotism or politics, or to be influenced by pull than he . . . . The board, as a representative of the people in the control of the schools should have the right to approve or disapprove the superintendent's selection, though without the right of initiating substitute appointments themselves." <sup>45</sup>

Cooke also endorses this method of selection:

"Using actual practice as a criterion it is clear that the majority of teachers are selected by the superintendent or official head of the school system. He usually selects the teachers, subject to approval or confirmation by the board of education. The school board may either accept or reject nominations of the superintendent, but as a general rule it does not nominate other teachers after its rejection of the list represented." <sup>46</sup>

Reeder goes a step further in delegating the responsibility of teacher selection to the superintendent:

"The first principle to be followed in teacher selection is that those persons who are best qualified to judge qualifications should have the responsibility for selecting . . . . Because of his professional training, his educational experience, and especially because of the position he holds, the superintendent of schools, with the cooperation of his administrative co-workers, should be delegated the function of

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44. Almack and Lang, op. cit., p.40.

45. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 312.

46. Cooke, op. cit., p. 184.

selecting all teachers; it would be advisable to have such delegation made a matter of written record in the rules and regulations of the board. In fact, to give the superintendent of schools this function by state law would mean a forward step for education." 47

Engelhardt subscribes to the latter method:

"It has long been recognized as a fundamental principle of administration that the superintendent of school should be responsible for the recommendation for appointment of individuals to all professional offices. . . . The acceptance of this principle of administration has no doubt contributed much to the improvement of the schools in recent years." 48

#### IV. SUMMARY OF DESIRABLE PROCEDURE IN TEACHER SELECTION

Reeder lays down four principles to pursue in teacher selection, to which the present writer subscribes:

"It is recommended, therefore, that the board of education prescribe in its rules and regulations the procedure to be followed in teacher selection. Such rules should take as their foundation and framework the following principles, and it would be well to incorporate the first three principles into the statutes of the state:

"1. That the superintendent of schools be delegated the duty of nominating all teachers to the board of education.

"2. That all nominations thus made be accepted by the board unless disapproved by a majority vote.

"3. That when a nomination of the superintendent is disapproved, he shall make another or other nominations. When the board disapproves a nomination of the superintendent, it shall not substitute a candidate of its own selection.

"4. That all candidates for positions be instructed to send their applications to, and promote their candidacies wholly with, the superintendent of schools, and not to or with the board of education." 49

Cubberley states the following principles of teacher selection:

"1. The superintendent of schools should nominate all teachers, principals and supervisors to the board of education for election or promotion.

"2. Elementary teachers should be elected to a position in the school system, the assignment to a definite school or position being left to the superintendent.

"3. The board may either confirm or disapprove the superintendent's nominations but should have no power to substitute

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47. Reeder, op. cit., p. 57.

48. Engelhardt, Fred. Public School Organization and Administration. Cinn and Co., New York, 1930, p. 161.

49. Reeder, op. cit., p. 313.



other names of its own choice.

"4. In case any nomination is disapproved the superintendent should then nominate a new candidate for the position.

"5. The board should be permitted to elect, without such nomination, only in case the superintendent refuses to make a nomination.

"6. The members of the board should refer all applicants to the superintendent, and refuse to discuss positions with them. To this end the board should announce that it has delegated the power of nomination to the superintendent, and that board members do not desire applicants or their friends to visit them on the matter." 50

## V. ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES AFFECTING TEACHER SELECTION IN MONTANA

While there is considerable variation in the relation between school boards and their superintendents, it may be said, generally, that all recent studies show an increasing authority and responsibility on the part of the superintendent in the selection and appointment of teachers. Table VI shows the status of Montana school administrators in this respect.

Table VI: Location of Administrative Authority for the Selection of New Teachers.

School officials who select candidates	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent*
	I	II	III	IV		
Superintendent of schools	1	22	25	x	48	37.50
Principal of high school	0	0	0	5	5	3.90
Supt. and prin. in cooperation	0	2	0	0	2	1.56
Board of trustees	0	2	6	2	10	7.81
Committee of board	1	1	1	1	4	3.12
Supt. and board cooperating	2	28	36	3	71	55.46
Total reports	4	55	70	11	140	

\*Some administrators checked more than one item. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study.

In 37.5 percent of the 128 schools studied, the superintendent exercises full authority in the selection and appointment of teachers, and in 55 percent of the schools the superintendent and board cooperate in selection. The board of trustees assumes full responsibility in nearly 8 percent of the schools, and in nearly 10 percent of the schools in third class districts. Board committees perform this

50. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 313.

function in only 3 percent of the schools reporting. The county high schools principals are delegated this responsibility in 5 out of the 11 schools cooperating in this study. These practices prevalent in Montana conform quite generally with the principles laid down in the foregoing section.

Table VII analyzes further the functions of administrators and their boards in the selection of teachers. The questions stated were asked to determine definitely the practices which exist in the matter of investigating and nominating candidates for election.

Table VII: Functions of Administrators and Boards in the Investigation and Recommendation of Candidates for Teaching Positions.

Tabulations, by Districts, of Replies to the Following Questions:

1. Do you investigate candidates independently of the board?
2. Do you recommend one candidate only for election to each vacancy?
3. Do you recommend several candidates and let the board select from these?
4. Do members of the board nominate candidates of their own?
5. Does the board act only upon candidates whom you nominate?

Questions regarding functions	Frequencies by districts								Total		Percent *	
	I		II		III		IV					
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1	4	0	48	0	57	4	10	0	116	4	90.62	3.12
2	2	2	26	20	16	43	3	8	47	73	36.71	57.03
3	1	2	18	20	42	16	8	1	69	39	53.90	30.46
4	0	4	12	32	27	32	1	10	40	78	31.25	60.93
5	4	0	42	3	49	9	10	0	105	12	82.03	9.37

\*Note: Some administrators did not answer all of the questions in this table. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study. Where the sum of "Yes-No" percentages does not equal 100, the difference indicates those schools which did not respond.

In more than 90 percent of the cases the administrators investigate candidates independently of their boards. They perform this function in 100 percent of the first and second class districts and county high schools. Nearly 37 percent of the administrators nominate only one candidate for election to each vacancy, while 54

percent nominate several candidates and let the board make the final selection. In 31 percent of the schools participating board members advance candidates of their own while 61 percent abstain from doing so. This relatively high percentage for the state as a whole is due to the fact that nearly 45 percent of the third class district boards are still engaging in this unprofessional practice. In 82 percent of the schools, board members act only upon candidates whom the superintendent recommends., and more than 9 percent consider candidates who are not recommended by the superintendent. This faulty practice is prevalent, however, only in the second and third class districts.

On the whole, a relatively high degree of sound professional practice is pursued by school boards in the problem of investigating, considering and selecting teachers. Deviations from sound practice are most prevalent in the third class districts, and least prevalent in the first class districts. This can readily be explained by virtue of the size of the school districts. In the smaller third class schools, board members are more apt to cling to traditional policies in teacher selection, or they are more likely to usurp the authority from their superintendent or principal, where it rightfully belongs. The author has worked for ten years as a superintendent in these smaller schools and has come into actual contact with this situation.

#### VI. AGENCIES THROUGH WHICH NEW TEACHERS ARE LOCATED

If vacancies exist or occur in a school system, the superintendent concerns himself with securing the best possible candidates to recommend to his board to fill these vacancies. Table VIII indicates

the methods and agencies employed by superintendents in the location and selection of candidates and teachers.

**Table VIII: Methods, Agencies, and Procedures Employed by Administrators in the Selection of New Teachers.**

Methods and agencies employed	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
M.E.A. Placement Bureau	2	43	57	10	112	87.50
Normal school placement bureau	2	41	49	3	95	74.21
College or university bureau	3	43	52	10	108	84.37
Commercial teachers' agencies	1	31	45	7	84	65.62
Teachers' written application	4	38	50	9	101	78.90
Printed application blanks	3	27	17	5	52	40.62
Personal interview with applicant	3	45	57	10	115	89.84
Letters from friends of applicant	3	14	14	3	34	26.56
Observing teachers in other schools	2	12	14	8	36	28.12
Visiting higher institutions to observe practice teachers	1	4	1	1	7	5.46

The most common method employed in the selection of teachers is the personal interview of the applicant. Nearly 90 percent of the schools studied utilize this method. The next agency is the Placement Bureau of the Montana Education Association, which is utilized by 87.5 percent of Montana school administrators. The rank of the various sources and methods for obtaining teachers is as follows:

1. Personal interview with applicant.
2. Placement Bureau of Montana Education Association.
3. College or university placement bureau.
4. Teachers' written letters of application.
5. Normal school placement bureaus.
6. Commercial teachers' agencies.
7. Printed application blanks.
8. Observing teachers in other school systems.
9. Letters of recommendation from friends of applicant.
10. Visiting higher institutions to observe practice teachers.

The Office of Education<sup>51</sup> reports that nearly 57 percent of all new teachers employed in 1929-30 were located through their own individual applications; 16 percent through placement bureaus of higher institutions; and 13 percent through commercial teachers'

<sup>51</sup>. Deffenbaugh and Zeigel, op. cit., p. 39.

agencies. The various sources for obtaining teachers were ranked in the order of importance as follows:<sup>52</sup>

1. Applications from individual teachers.
2. Placement bureau of educational institutions.
3. Private teachers' agencies.
4. City teacher training schools.
5. Visits to other school systems by superintendents.
6. Visits to higher institutions.
7. Visits to observe practice teachers.
8. State appointment bureaus.
9. State teachers' association bureaus.
10. Lists of candidates from higher institutions.

## VII. PERSONAL INTERVIEWS

The above data reveal that the personal interview is the method most commonly employed in teacher selection in Montana. It is perhaps the most valuable technique in selection thus far developed. Lewis states that "There is no substitute for the personal interview."<sup>53</sup> Reeder takes the same position: "One of the best means of securing information concerning the candidate is through the personal interview, and there are few instances when teachers should be employed without having this interview."<sup>54</sup> Almack and Lang say that "The interview is often a test of the applicant's adaptability."<sup>55</sup> Cooke is of the opinion that "The personal interview, if properly conducted, is one of the more reliable techniques."<sup>56</sup> It should not be inferred that the personal interview is an infallible tool. It is, however, a valuable method when

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52. Deffenbaugh and Zeigel, op. cit., p. 40.

53. Lewis, op. cit., p. 138.

54. Reeder, op. cit., p. 68.

55. Almack and Lang, op. cit., p. 46.

56. Cooke, op. cit., p. 190.

employed by those trained in its use.

Nearly all school systems in Montana, both large and small, make use of the personal interview in teacher selection. Table IX reports data relative to persons conducting interviews of prospective teachers.

**Table IX: School Authorities who Interview Candidates if Personal Application is Suggested or Required.**

Persons interviewing	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent*
	I	II	III	IV		
Superintendent of schools	4	48	57	**	109	83.15
Principal of high school	1	0	2	11	14	10.93
Principal of school where teacher is needed	1	4	3	0	8	6.25
Supervisor of teachers	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
Chairman of school board	3	8	12	3	26	20.31
Board committee on teacher selection	2	4	3	2	11	8.59
All members of the board	0	12	28	2	42	32.81
Teachers' committee of PTA	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
Total reports	11	76	105	13	210	-

\* Some administrators checked more than one item. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study.

\*\* The principal is the administrative head of the county high school.

In 83 percent of the schools, the superintendent interviews applicants; in nearly 33 percent all members of the board interview them, and in 20 percent the chairman of the board interviews them. In nearly 11 percent of the schools the applicant is interviewed by the principal of the high school, in 8.6 percent by the board committee on teacher selection, and in 6 percent by the principal of the school where the teacher is needed.

#### The Office of Education reports:

"The superintendent interviews candidates for positions in 49.5 percent of the systems; the principal interviews them in about 15 percent; and members of the teachers' committee of the board and individual members of the board in about 6 percent of the systems."

57. Deffenbaugh and Zeigel, op. cit., p. 63.

It is significant that in the present study as well as in the Office of Education<sup>58</sup> study that as the size of the system decreases the role played by school board members increases. All members of the board interviewed applicants in 28 out of 64 third class district schools reporting, whereas this was true in only 12 out of 49 second class districts and in none of the first class districts. It must be borne in mind, however, that the third class district board has only three members, whereas the second class has five, and the first class has seven members.

#### VIII. METHODS OF COLLECTING INFORMATION ABOUT PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

After superintendents and boards of education have located prospective teachers, the next step should be to collect such information about these candidates as is necessary to insure wise selection. Although the sources from which it is possible to collect information concerning applicants is varied, the following are among those most frequently employed: (1) individual applications of teachers, (2) uniform printed application blanks, (3) uniform reference blanks, (4) letters of recommendation, (5) personal interviews, (6) observation of teachers in other schools, (7) physical examinations, and (8) photographs. Printed application and reference blanks were requested by the questionnaire in the present study. These sources of information will be analyzed briefly here.

##### A. Analysis of Application Blanks

Only 52 Montana administrators reported the use of printed Application blanks, and only 33 blanks were sent to the author. The items of information called for on these blanks fall into five

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<sup>58</sup>. Deffenbaugh and Zeigel, op. cit., p. 83.

general categories: (1) personal data, (2) educational preparation, (3) teaching experience, (4) references, and (5) general information.

1. Personal data: The items of age, height, weight, salary, religious preference, health, marital status were reported in from 76 to 95 percent of the blanks.

2. Educational preparation: Items such as high school attended, years in high school, date of graduation, normal school training, years in normal school, date of graduation, college attended, college degree, date of graduation, were reported in 70 to 92 percent of the 33 blanks received. Other items such as number of hours in education, normal school credits, college credits, and educational courses were found in 15 to 27 percent of the blanks analyzed.

3. Teaching experience: The location of school, number of months taught, grade and subjects taught, and inclusive dates of experience in various schools were reported in 65 to 84 percent of the application blanks.

4. References: More than 96 percent of the blanks requested the names of references. From 3 to 6 names were requested; more than 45 percent provided space for 5 names. A majority of the blanks admonished the applicant to furnish names of principals and superintendents familiar with her work.

5. General information: Items such as the name of the applicant, the date, address of applicant, position desired, and photograph, were requested in 68 to 100 percent of the blanks.

#### B. Analysis of Reference Blanks

Only 28 reference blanks were returned to the author in this



study. This material again is too inadequate to draw any significant conclusions. The blanks have many types of questions and several methods provided for answering them. Some forms have one mode of response throughout, while others have different methods of reply for different types of questions. Some blanks request only a general subjective statement about the applicant and a few set up as many as 50 specific items to be answered.

Of the 28 blanks studied, only 5 call for a general subjective statement concerning the candidate; 16 make provision for written answers to specific questions or for written opinions on listed traits, 3 provide a type of check list by means of which a respondent evaluates certain traits on a scale, and 4 provide for underlining the most appropriate term in a multiple list of qualities or characteristics.

#### IX. STANDARDS EMPLOYED IN EVALUATING CANDIDATES.

The items listed in Table X were submitted as a check list to Montana school administrators to ascertain the standards which they employ in collecting information to evaluate prospective teachers.

Table X on next page.

**Table X. Standards Employed by School Administrators in Collecting Information about Prospective Teachers.**

Standares employed	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
Academic preparation	4	44	58	11	117	91.40
Professional preparation	4	46	62	11	123	96.09
Specialized preparation	4	35	46	11	96	75.00
Certification	3	41	60	10	114	89.06
Age	4	36	39	9	88	68.75
Health	4	46	59	9	118	92.18
Moral character	4	48	57	11	120	93.75
Religious preference	1	10	21	2	34	26.56
Extra curricular qualifications	3	43	60	11	117	91.40
Tenure in previous positions	4	33	47	10	94	73.43
Confidential recommendations	4	46	54	11	114	89.06
Open letters of recommendation	1	2	5	1	9	7.02
Physical fitness	4	37	49	9	99	77.34
Personal qualities	4	45	51	10	110	85.93
Instructional ability	4	43	54	10	111	86.71
Disciplinary ability	4	45	59	11	119	92.96
Teaching success	4	42	59	10	114	89.06
Cooperation	4	39	50	11	104	81.25
Loyalty to school	4	39	47	9	99	77.34
Loyalty to superiors	4	36	48	9	97	75.78
General ability	4	31	37	7	79	61.71
Scholarship	4	31	46	9	90	70.31
Personality	4	43	55	10	112	87.50
Adaptability	4	24	37	6	71	53.46
Community interest	4	38	48	7	97	75.78
Photograph	4	38	46	8	96	75.00
Need (dependents)	1	3	2	1	7	5.46
Miscellaneous	0	1	0	4	5	3.90

The standards in the foregoing tabulation are restated here in the order of their frequency of use by Montana school administrators:

Rank	Standard	Percent
1	Professional preparation	96.0
2	Moral character	93.7
3	Disciplinary ability	92.9
4	Health	92.1
5	Academic preparation	91.4
5	Extra curricular qualifications	91.4
6	Certification	89.0
6	Conditional recommendations	89.0
6	Teaching success	89.0
7	Personality	87.5
8	Instructional ability	86.7
9	Personal qualities	85.9
10	Cooperation	81.2
11	Physical fitness	77.3
11	Loyalty to school	77.3
12	Loyalty to superiors	75.7

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Standard</u>	<u>Percent</u>
12	Community interest	75.7
13	Specialized preparation	75.0
13	Photograph	75.0
14	Tenure in previous positions	73.4
15	Scholarship	70.3
16	Age	68.7
17	General ability	61.7
18	Adaptability	55.4
19	Religious preference	26.5
20	Open letters of recommendation	7.0
21	Need (dependents)	5.4
	Miscellaneous	3.9

Almack and Lang classify the information sought regarding prospective teachers under the following heads: Personal data, training, experience, special abilities, and references.<sup>59</sup> Cubberley states that:

"It is well for the superintendent of schools to have some system of rating applicants, by which he can defend his selections should they be called into question. Certain elements should enter into the formation of judgments. . . . These should include: Professional preparation and experience, evidence as to professional success, personality and adaptability to the work of instruction, and physical examinations. . . . covering both physical and mental health."<sup>60</sup>

Cooke concludes that:

"Practically all the important and desirable teaching qualities can be classified under the following seven categories: Personal fitness, social fitness, moral fitness, physical fitness, intellectual fitness, preparational fitness, and enthusiasm or interest fitness."<sup>61</sup>

## I. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Authorities in school administration are agreed that the school board should not exercise the power of teacher selection; they condemn the practice severely in all the current literature on the subject. They recommend that the responsibility of teacher selection should be vested in the superintendent of schools; the superintendent should nominate candidates to his board; the board

59. Almack and Lang, op. cit., p. 43.

60. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 313.

61. Cooke, op. cit., p. 187.

should either confirm or disapprove his nominations. Authorities agree that if the board rejects the superintendent's nominations, they should not substitute candidates of their own choice; rather they should request further nominations from the superintendent.

Recent studies show that superintendents are gradually exercising more authority in the selection of teachers; boards are slowly relinquishing this traditional power to their superintendents. In Montana 37.5 percent of the school administrators exercise full control over the selection of teachers, while 55 percent cooperate with their boards in teacher selection and appointment.

The practices in Montana correlated very favorably with the principles advocated by authorities in personnel administration. In over 90 percent of the Montana school systems, superintendents investigate candidates independently of their boards of trustees. In 37 percent of the systems superintendents nominate one candidate only for election to each vacancy; in 54 percent they nominate several and let the board make the final selection. In 31 percent of the schools, board members engage in the unprofessional practice of nominating candidates of their own choice; in 61 percent of the systems this undesirable situation does not exist. On the whole, relatively high professional practices in teacher selection are observed in Montana schools; deviations from sound practice are most prevalent in the third class districts, least in the first class.

Nearly 90 percent of Montana school administrators employ the personal interview in teacher selection. More than 87 percent employ the Placement Bureau of the Montana Education Association in locating candidates; 66 percent utilize the services of commercial

teachers agencies. Printed application blanks are used by 40 percent of the school administrators, principally in the first and second class districts.

Authorities in school administration agree that the personal interview is a highly desirable technique in teacher selection but they differ on its reliability; they state that, as a technique, it must be made more objective. At present they feel that the result of an interview is too largely a general impression.

In more than 85 percent of the 128 schools reporting applicants are interviewed by the administrator ; in nearly 33 percent all members of the board interview candidates, in 20 percent the chairman interviews them. The practice of requiring applicants to interview all members of the board is most prevalent in third class districts, least in the first class. This situation runs true to form in Montana and correlates with the data in the Office of Education study.

The study of uniform printed applications and reference blanks is inadequate because an insufficient number of these forms was obtained. However, the forms received revealed practices very similar to the findings in the Office of Education report. The data in the teachers' application blanks received fall under five heads: Personal data, educational preparation, teaching experience, references, general and miscellaneous information. The data in the reference blanks received indicate a trend toward more objective ratings upon teaching qualities and characteristics. Most of the blanks may be classed as "semi-objective".

The ten leading standards employed by Montana school

administrators in collecting information about teachers are, in order of importance, as follows: Professional preparation; moral character; disciplinary ability; health; academic preparation; extra curricular qualifications; certification; confidential recommendations; teaching success, and personality.

On the whole, the practices, techniques, and standards employed in teacher selection by Montana administrators correlate very favorably with sound professional principles, and in several instances surpass the practices and standards reported in the Office of Education investigation.

## CHAPTER IV: REELECTION, TENURE, AND DISMISSAL OF TEACHERS

### I. PRACTICES IN TEACHER REELECTION AND DISMISSAL

Englehardt condemns the annual reelection of teachers in the following:

"The yearly election and annual contract plan of teacher employment has been in many respects a very unsatisfactory administrative practice and has led to many injustices to teachers. It is an antiquated device and should be modified. . . ."<sup>62</sup>

Gubberley paints very interesting picture of the teacher reelection and dismissal situation in the following:

"Each spring the formal annual election of teachers for the ensuing twelve months is the chief educational event of the year. . . . Each year the teaching force is overhauled by the board of education, formal conferences are held between the board and its superintendent, written charges are filed, formal hearings in special cases are held, teachers are kept in a condition of worry for weeks, and the board finally after a great show of activity, drops a small number of teachers and elects others to their places. Not infrequently much injustice is done in these annual elections of teachers. Sometimes the first notice that a teacher has that her work has not been satisfactory is when she reads in the morning papers that someone else has been elected to her position. Teachers, too, are sometimes dropped over the protest of the principal or superintendent. More commonly, however, the injustice is the other way. . . . In the annual scramble for places, the interests of the children, for whom the school exists, are at times almost forgotten."<sup>63</sup>

With this illuminating description of conditions, let us examine the situation in Montana.

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62. Englehardt, op. cit., p. 189

63. Gubberley, op. cit., p. 318-19

**Table XI: Practices in Teacher Reelection and Dismissal. Tabulation by Districts of Replies to the Following Questions:**

1. Does the board always accept your recommendations for reelection of teachers?
2. Does the board always accept your recommendations for dismissal of teachers?
3. Are incumbent teachers elected each year in board meeting?
4. Are incumbent teachers required to apply for reelection?
5. Does the board invoke the Montana tenure law (requiring notification before May 1 of the third year) to dismiss teachers?
6. Has the board ever acted upon teacher reelection without your sanction?
7. Do non-school or outside influences affect the reelection of teachers?
8. Do teachers' contracts contain clauses giving the board power to dismiss a teacher during term?

Questions stated above	Frequencies by districts								Total		Percent*	
	I		II		III		IV					
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1	3	1	35	16	43	19	9	2	90	32	70.31	25.00
2	3	1	34	7	49	10	10	1	95	19	74.21	14.84
3	4	0	47	1	62	1	10	1	123	3	96.09	2.34
4	1	3	5	39	10	52	1	6	17	102	13.28	79.68
5	4	0	41	3	53	11	9	2	107	16	83.59	12.50
6	0	4	4	42	8	53	0	11	12	110	9.37	85.93
7	2	1	21	22	43	18	4	7	70	49	54.63	37.50
8	3	0	33	14	36	23	6	4	78	46	60.93	35.93

**Note:** Some administrators did not answer all of the questions in this table. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study. Where the sum of "Yes-No" percentages does not equal 100, the difference indicates those schools which did not respond.

In 70 percent of the 128 schools studied, the board accepts the administrator's recommendations for reelection, and in 25 percent the board does not always do so. Conversely, in 74 percent of the schools, the board accepts the superintendent's recommendations for dismissal and in nearly 15 percent it does not always do so. In 96 percent of the schools, incumbent teachers are annually reelected, while in only 3 schools, annual reelections have been



abolished. In 13 percent of the schools, teachers are required to apply annually for reelection, whereas this requirement does not exist in nearly 80 percent. Boards of trustees invoke the Montana tenure law (which requires that teachers must be notified before May 1 of the third consecutive year of service in the same school system) to dismiss teachers in nearly 84 percent of the schools. In more than 9 percent of the schools, boards act on teacher reelection without the administrator's sanction; such action is not taken in nearly 86 percent. In nearly 55 percent of the schools, non-school or outside influences affect the reelection of teachers; in 37.5 percent this is not true. In 61 percent of the schools, teachers contracts contain clauses giving the board power to dismiss teachers during the term for stated causes.

What are the effects of the situations indicated in the preceding paragraph? Cubberley again states the facts very aptly:

"Under such conditions the teachers soon recognize that their principal or superintendent is powerless to protect them, the best teachers go elsewhere or leave the work for some other more attractive form of employment, while those who remain are rendered timid, and often hesitate to do their duty for fear of giving offense to some person or influence, or they are rendered rebellious and forced into unions for protection, or to unite to secure life tenure laws. The result is a condition of unrest in the school system which is not good for the schools, and not infrequently legislation which is inimical to their proper progress."<sup>64</sup>

Similar evils are seen by Englehardt.

"Flagrant cases of political dismissal which have attained wide notoriety have perpetrated gross injustice upon certain superintendents, principals and teachers. These cases, which have likewise resulted in direct injury to the schools, have been the outcomes of the undue advantage that unscrupulous school boards have taken of those employed by

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64. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 319

the school district."<sup>65</sup>

Further study of the practices in teacher reelection is made in Table XII.

**Table XII: Location of Administrative Authority for Recommending the Reelection of Incumbent Teachers.**

School officials who recommend	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent*
	I	II	III	IV		
Supt. of schools	3	43	50	0	96	75.00
Principal of high school*	0	0	0	11	11	8.59
Supt. and prin. in cooperation	1	3	1	0	4	3.12
Board of Trustees	0	0	7	0	7	5.46
Committee of board	0	0	1	1	2	1.56
Supt. and board in cooperation	0	10	18	0	28	21.87
Total reports	4	53	77	12	146	

\*County high school principal is administrative head of system.

\*Note: Some administrators checked more than one item. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study.

In 75 percent of the 128 schools participating the superintendent exercises sole authority in the reelection of teachers, in 22 percent the superintendent and board cooperate in the problem, and in more than 5 percent the board of trustees exercises control over reelection. These cases occur in the third class districts only, and represent 11 percent of such schools. It is noteworthy that in 100 percent of the county high schools, the principal, who is the administrative head, exercises sole jurisdiction in teacher's reelection.

It will be interesting to study in comparison, practices in the dismissal of teachers. Table XIII presents data on this problem.

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65. Englehardt, op. cit., p. 189.

**Table XIII: Location of Administrative Authority for Recommending the Dismissal of Incumbent Teachers.**

School Officials who recommend	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent*
	I	II	III	IV		
Supt. of schools	4	36	34	0	74	57.81
Prin. of high school*	0	0	0	9	9	7.03
Supt. and prin. in cooperation	1	3	1	0	5	3.90
Board of trustees	0	5	12	1	18	14.06
Committee of board	0	00	0	1	1	.78
Supt. and board in cooperation	0	14	29	1	43	33.59
Total reports	5	58	75	12	150	

\*County high school principal is administrative head of system.

\*Note: Some administrators checked more than one item. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study.

In nearly 58 percent of the 128 schools cooperating the superintendent has the sole power to recommend teachers for dismissal, in 33 percent the superintendent and board cooperate upon the problem, and in 14 percent the board assumes this authority itself. The power of dismissal is retained by the board in a larger percentage of the cases in the third class districts than in any other classification; nearly 20 percent of the boards in this class retain that power.

Comparing the data reported in Tables XII and XIII we observe that: (1) The superintendent has less jurisdiction in the problem of dismissal of teachers than he has in reelection, (2) the board of trustees retains the power of dismissal in 14 percent of the schools, whereas it exercises the sole power of reelection in only about 5 percent, (3) the superintendent and board cooperate in a larger number of cases upon the problem of dismissal than they do in teacher reelection.

Cubberley advocates the following principles and procedures in teacher dismissal:

"The right to terminate the contract for cause is an important right, and should not be denied to school authorities.....No teacher should be liable to a termination of contract for failure to render satisfactory service who has not been notified of the deficiencies, and given an opportunity and reasonable assistance to remedy them. If improvement does not result, sufficient to warrant the retention of the teacher, the superintendent should then recommend that written notice be served on the teacher, for specified reasons, to the effect that the board desires to terminate the contract with the teacher to take effect at the close of the school year.....For the sufficiency of the reasons for terminating the contract, the superintendent should be the sole judge."<sup>66</sup>

## II. THE STATUS OF TEACHERS' CONTRACTS

### A. Summary of Anderson Survey

In a nationwide study of the contractual status of teachers Anderson<sup>67</sup> found that only about one twelfth of the school systems of cities more than 2500 population do not use contracts. He found that they are used almost universally in rural districts and small cities. He summarized the purposes of the contract in the following words:

"Contract forms are used not only to record the agreement to teach for a certain sum but also.....to notify the teacher as to state laws and local requirements, and to impress her with the sacredness of the contract."<sup>68</sup>

He found further that the form of the contract varies widely from state to state and between school systems within a state. He learned, moreover, that usually the smaller the school system the larger the number of items in the contract, and vice versa. He

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<sup>66</sup>. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 223

<sup>67</sup>. Anderson, op. cit., p. 149

<sup>68</sup>. Ibid., p. 14

concluded that the best type of teacher's contract should include the following items: Name of school district, name of teacher, agreement that she is to teach, amount of salary, time limit of acceptance, signature of the authorized school officer, agreement to abide by the rules and regulations of the board, and signature of the teacher.<sup>69</sup>

### B. Analysis of Contract Blanks

The questionnaire in the present study requested Montana administrators to enclose blank copies of the contract forms employed by their board of trustees. Only 18 such blanks were returned; many of the administrators, particularly in the second and third class districts, replied stating "We use the standard state form" or similar explanatory notes. Consequently this analysis of contracts, will not be very representative because of the limited data at hand.

Of the 18 blanks enclosed, three were the standard Montana agreement between teachers and school trustees, seven were printed to the order of the local school district, and eight were mimeographed forms. The three standard contracts are familiar to most Montana administrators and will not be separately considered. The remaining fifteen contain many interesting clauses, a few of which will be quoted in part or whole.

The clauses in these contracts cover the following situations and conditions: Methods of salary payment, proper certification of teacher, power of termination by the board, sick leave, resignation of teacher, forfeiture of salary, marriage during term, incompetence,

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<sup>69</sup>. Anderson, op. cit., p. 145

insubordination, wilful neglect of duty, immorality, physical fitness and medical examination of teacher, and conformity to board rules, and miscellaneous clauses.

Following are excerpts quoted from the contract blanks received, illustrating some of the above items:

1. "The annual salary of teachers shall be paid in twelve equal installments as follows:...."
2. "The said teacher represents herself to be competent and legally qualified to teach in said district, and that the information given in her application, upon which this contract is based, is true and correct".
3. "It is understood that you must possess a certificate as provided by law....."
4. "This contract may be terminated without recourse by either party by giving 30 days written notice to the other party".
5. "You will be allowed six days for personal sickness during the school term without loss of pay...."
6. "The marriage of a lady teacher during the term is equivalent to her resignation".
7. "Should a teacher marry during the life of this contract her resignation becomes effective at once....."
8. "In case of insubordination, improper conduct, immorality or willful neglect of duty, your contract shall immediately cease and terminate upon notice given by the board".
9. "This contract shall become null and void, if at any time during the term of the contract, the teacher keeps company with high school students of the opposite sex".
10. "The acceptance of this contract carries with it an agreement to conform to all laws, rules and regulations covering said schools".

Table XIV analyzes further the contractual status of teachers in Montana public schools.

Table XIV: Types of Clauses in Teachers' Contracts giving Board Power of Revocation during School Term.

Types of Clauses	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent*
	I	II	III	IV		
Marriage	3	17	22	4	46	33.93
Immorality	3	13	14	3	33	23.78
Incompetence	3	14	14	4	35	27.34
Intemperance	2	8	9	1	20	15.62
Closing of school	3	13	17	3	36	28.12
30 day notice			3		3	2.34
Miscellaneous		6	4		10	7.61
Total reports	14	71	83	15	183	

**\*Note:** Some administrators checked more than one item. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study.

In nearly 36 percent of the 128 schools studied, teacher's contracts contain marriage clauses, such as quoted above, giving the board power to dismiss a lady teacher who marries during the school term. More than 25 percent of the school administrators reported that their teachers' contracts contained immorality clauses; 27 percent reported incompetence clauses; and 13 percent intemperance clauses. In more than 28 percent of the schools, contracts give the board power to close the school, without recourse, during the term; in 3 schools, 30 day notice clauses, such as quoted above, are employed; and miscellaneous other clauses are written into nearly 8 percent of the teachers' contracts.

### III. THE ANNUAL REELECTION OF TEACHERS

Regardless of the fact that most authorities on school administration advise against the annual reelection of teachers, annual elections are held in nearly all smaller cities. In a foregoing section it was pointed out that they occur in 96 percent of the schools of Montana, and that only 3 schools have abandoned this practice.

Each year from February to May superintendents and boards of trustees are working this problem of teacher reelection. Table IV presents data on this matter in Montana schools.

Table XV: Months during which annual reelection of teachers takes place.

Months of reelection	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent <sup>7</sup>
	I	II	III	IV		
January	0	1	0	0	1	.78
February	0	1	3	0	4	3.12
March	0	9	14	4	27	21.09
April	4	39	51	8	8	79.69
May	0	1	5	0	6	4.68
June	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
Total reports	4	51	73	12	140	

\*Note: Some administrators checked more than one item. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study.

In nearly 80 percent of the 128 schools, annual reelection occurs in April; in 21 percent it takes place in March; in more than 4 percent, in May; and 3 percent, in February. No regular annual elections occur after May, and one school reelects teachers in January.

The situation in Montana may be compared with a study made by Cough.<sup>70</sup> In a study of 234 schools in cities of 2500 to 5000 population, he finds that almost 9 percent hold annual elections in February, 37 percent in March, 23 percent in April, 27 percent in May and 1 percent in June, with the remainder at more or less indefinite times.

#### IV. THE PROBLEM OF TEACHER TURNOVER

Teacher turnover is caused, on the one hand, by certain constant factors over which the local board of trustees has no control, and on the other by certain variable factors over which it may be possible to exercise, by the use of proper employment methods, a reasonable degree of control.

Lewis<sup>71</sup> classifies the causes of turnover under six headings. Data are lacking as to the relative importance of each cause:

70. Cough, H. S. "Procedure in the Employment of Teachers in Cities of 2500 - 5000 Population". Unpublished Master's Thesis, Univ. of Minn. 1928, p. 7.

71. Lewis, op. cit., p. 331-33.



**I. Economic factors**

1. Inadequate salary
2. High cost of living
3. Economic fluctuations
4. Size and wealth of the community
5. Influence of placement bureaus
6. Influence of teachers' organizations
7. Attraction of other trades
8. Economic independence

**II. Political factors**

1. Change in personnel of boards and officers
2. Local factionalism
3. Needless hiring and firing
4. Wrong methods of handling employees
5. Annual elections
6. Home talent competition
7. Spoils system
8. Unsatisfactory employer

**III. Professional factors**

1. Desire for promotion
2. Desire for further schooling
3. Desire to move with officers
4. Higher standards required
5. Expiration of certificate
6. Changes in curriculum
7. Unsatisfactory conditions of work
8. Uncertainty of tenure
9. Lack of provision for old age

**IV. Individual factors**

1. Desire for change; wanderlust, unrest, etc.
2. Age and sex
3. Marriage
4. Health: personal and family
5. Unfitness: incompetence, immorality, etc.
6. Desire to start over
7. Friendships elsewhere

**V. Social factors**

1. Religious, political and economic habits and views
2. Provincialism of the community
3. Migration of teacher's family or friends
4. Lack of social common sense
5. Restricted social opportunities
6. Lack of community appreciation
7. Poor living conditions

**VI. Geographic factors**

1. Climatic conditions
2. Unsatisfactory location

## V. GUIDING PRINCIPLES IN TEACHER TENURE

The extent of teacher turnover is a personnel problem of the first magnitude. The factor of security is exactly what the teacher lacks. Authorities in school administration suggest indefinite tenure as the best and most practical solution of this problem.

Describing the operation of indefinite tenure, Almaack and Lang state that:

"Appointment and dismissal remain in the hands of the school board as before. Annual reelections, however, after a two or three year probationary period, are discontinued. The teacher remains in service from year to year without making application or being subject to election, until the board, upon the recommendation of the superintendent, decides to bring her tenure to an end."<sup>72</sup>

Pointing out advantages of indefinite tenure, Cubberley says that

"Annual elections would cease, the teacher being merely continued in service from year to year without any action on either side, until such time as the board, for cause and only upon the recommendation of the superintendent, should see fit to terminate the contract."<sup>73</sup>

The Committee of One Hundred on Tenure suggests the following principles:<sup>74</sup>

1. Tenure laws should be devised and administered in the interest of better instruction.
2. Tenure laws should be accompanied by proper legal regulations governing training, certification, remuneration, and retirement allowances.
3. Tenure laws should be devised and administered as a stimulus to better preparation and more efficient service.
4. Indefinite tenure should be granted upon evidence of satisfactory preliminary training, successful experience and professional growth.
5. Indefinite tenure should be granted after successful experience during a two or three year probationary period.
6. The right of dismissal should be in the hands of the appointing board.

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<sup>72</sup>. Almaack and Lang, op. cit., p. 228

<sup>73</sup>. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 323

<sup>74</sup>. Rowland, op. cit., p. 198

7. Laws establishing indefinite tenure should provide for easy dismissal of incompetent teachers for clearly demonstrable causes.
8. The proposed dismissal for incompetence or neglect of duty should be preceded by a specific written statement of defects.
9. In case of proposed dismissal, teachers should be granted right of hearing.
10. Indefinite tenure should be accorded to all classes of certificated school--employees.

Indefinite tenure offers the best solution of the problem of teacher turnover. It affords security to both the teacher and the school, yet it has none of the disadvantages of guaranteed tenure on the one hand, and annual reelections on the other. Cubberley says "Between these two extremes (annual reelection and life tenure) lies a middle ground which is just to both the teacher and the schools, and that is indefinite tenure".<sup>75</sup> To this position the writer also subscribes.

#### VI. CAUSES OF TEACHER FAILURE OF REELECTION:

Reasons why teachers fail of reelection is a problem of teacher personnel which should arouse the concern of both teachers and school administrators. A suggestive list of 25 reasons why teachers fail of reelection was submitted to Montana superintendents for their evaluation. The findings are presented in Table XVI.

Table XVI: Reasons why Teachers Fail of Reelection in Montana Public Schools.

Causes of failure	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
Incompetence	4	43	54	10	111	88.71
Intemperance	3	27	21	7	68	53.12
Weak discipline	4	43	56	9	112	87.50
Poor instruction	4	41	51	8	104	81.25
Poor preparation	4	21	23	4	52	40.62

75. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 323

Table XVI (Cont'd)

Causes of failure	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
Poor scholarship	3	21	18	5	47	35.71
Poor health	3	18	32	5	58	45.31
Lack of cooperation	3	34	38	10	85	66.40
Lack of self control	3	23	25	7	58	45.31
Disloyalty	3	27	34	9	73	57.03
Insubordination	3	23	24	6	56	43.75
Immorality	3	28	34	7	72	56.25
Immaturity	3	3	9	1	16	12.50
Old age	3	8	9	1	21	16.40
Trouble with pupils	4	14	27	2	47	36.71
Trouble with patrons	2	11	28	1	42	32.81
Trouble with board members	2	5	17	2	26	20.31
Faulty personality	2	16	23	8	49	38.28
Wrong religious views for community	0	0	3	1	4	3.12
Frivolity or lack of stability	2	18	22	7	49	38.28
Poor personal appearance	1	5	11	1	18	14.06
Questionable recreational habits	3	17	19	7	46	35.93
Friction with co-workers	2	17	18	6	43	33.59
Too long tenure	0	4	4	0	8	6.25
Use of tobacco	0	3	5	0	8	6.25
Miscellaneous	1	11	0	3	5	3.90

These causes of failure are restated here in the order of their importance.

Rank	Cause of Failure	Percent
1.	Weak discipline	57.5
2.	Incompetence	56.7
3.	Poor instruction	51.2
4.	Lack of cooperation	66.4
5.	Disloyalty	57.0
6.	Immorality	56.2
7.	Intemperance	53.1
8.	Poor health	45.3
8.	Insubordination	43.7
10.	Poor preparation	40.6
11.	Frivolity or lack of stability	38.2
11.	Faulty personality	38.2
12.	Poor scholarship	36.7
12.	Trouble with pupils	36.7
13.	Questionable recreational habits	35.9
14.	Friction with co-workers	33.5
15.	Trouble with patrons	32.8
16.	Trouble with board members	20.3
17.	Old Age	16.4

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Cause of Failure</u>	<u>Percent</u>
18	Poor personal appearance	14.0
19	Immaturity	12.5
20	Too long tenure	6.2
20	Use of tobacco	6.2
21	Wrong religious views for community	3.1
	Miscellaneous	3.9

The five most common causes of failure in the present study are, in order of importance: (1) weak discipline, (2) incompetence, (3) poor instruction, (4) lack of cooperation, and (5) disloyalty. How do these causes compare with other studies? Lewis<sup>76</sup> reports the results of several investigations in his book. The first, by Moses, lists the five most important causes as follows: (1) poor instruction, (2) weak personality, (3) lack of interest, (4) weak discipline, and (5) lack of sympathy and tact. The second investigation, conducted by Buellfield and reported by Lewis,<sup>77</sup> list seven chief causes in order of importance: (1) weak discipline, (2) lack of judgment, (3) deficiency in scholarship, (4) lack of interest in teaching, (5) poor health, (6) lack of maturity and (7) wrong religious views for community.

Not much correlation exists between the findings in the present study and the results of the investigations reported by Lewis. It is significant, however, that weak discipline ranks first in the present study and in the in the investigation made by Buellfield, and fourth in the Moses study. For the teacher, a significant note of warning may be sounded in these findings. Weak discipline is a leading cause of failure; the beginning teacher should master this problem at the outset of her career.

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76. Lewis, op. cit., p. 306

77. Ibid., p. 308

## VII. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Cubberley and Engelhardt severely denounce the policy of annual reelection of teachers.

Teachers are reelected annually in 96 percent of the schools of Montana; only 3 schools have abandoned this practice. In 25 percent of the schools, boards do not always accept the superintendent's recommendation for reelection of teachers; in 15 percent they do not always accept the superintendent's recommendation for dismissal. Teachers are required to apply annually for reelection in 13 percent of the schools. Boards of trustees invoke the Montana tenure law to dismiss teachers in 84 percent of the schools. In 55 percent of the schools non-school, unprofessional, and outside interests affect the reelection of teachers.

The superintendent has less jurisdiction in dismissal than he has in reelection of teachers. In 75 percent of the schools superintendents exercise sole authority in reelection, and in 22 percent, the superintendent and board cooperate. The superintendent has the sole power to recommend teachers for dismissal in 58 percent of the schools, in 33 percent, he cooperates with his board in this matter. Boards of trustees retain the sole power of dismissing teachers in 14 percent of the schools, and they retain sole power of reelection 5 percent.

Boards should not be deprived of their right to terminate a teacher's contract; however, for the sufficiency of the reasons for terminating the contract, the superintendent should be the sole judge.

Marriage clauses are the most common of the restrictive clauses found in teacher's contracts, with incompetence, willful neglect of duty, certification, salary payments, termination of contract by board, closing of school, and conformity to board rules were also found in the contract blanks studied.

Annual reelection of teachers occurs in 96 percent of Montana's schools; in nearly 80 percent, this takes place in April. Authorities on school administration advocate indefinite tenure as a substitute for the evils of annual reelection.

The five commonest causes of teacher failure in this study were found to be: Weak discipline, incompetence, poor instruction, lack of cooperation and disloyalty. Weak discipline also ranked first in another comparable study. Hence it may be regarded as the primary cause of teacher failure.

The most flagrant violations of sound principles of teacher administration in Montana occur in annual reelection of teachers, and in retention of board control over teacher dismissal.

## CHAPTER V

## TEACHERS' SALARIES AND SALARY SCHEDULES

I. IMPORTANCE OF ADEQUATE SALARIES

In the campaigns to increase salaries of teachers, hundreds of salary studies have been made. All show that salaries in the teaching profession are not commensurate with the training required and value of the service rendered. Volumes have been written about this problem; suffice it here to quote briefly two authorities upon the need for adequate salaries.

Almack and Lang put it thus: "As conditions now are, salaries are far too low."<sup>78</sup>

Cubberley states that: "Higher pay and higher standards are practically inseparable, and higher pay must accompany the steady increase in standards."<sup>79</sup>

II. REWARDS FOR PROFESSIONAL ADVANCEMENT

"The encouragement among teachers of a progressive and dynamic attitude toward their own professional improvement is a first duty of an education leader . . . . Progressive school administrators would generally agree that one means of encouraging a right professional attitude is the adoption of regulations which encourage . . . teachers to take leave of absence for study, travel, or other approved means of improving professional equipment."<sup>80</sup>

This is generally accepted theory finds its counterpart in practice in a very limited degree. Table XVII reveals the status of current practice in Montana.

Table XVII: Rewards to Teachers for Efficiency and Professional Growth. Tabulations by Districts of Replies to the Following

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78. Almack and Lang, op. cit., p. 250.

79. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 372.

80. National Education Association, Research Division, op. cit., p. 225.



## Questions:

1. Do you definitely rate teachers as to quality of service rendered?
2. If so, does this rating determine salary for next year?
3. Are salary increases granted to teachers for attending summer school?
4. For taking professional courses during term?
5. For attending educational conferences during summer vacation?
6. For educative travel?

Questions stated above	Frequencies by districts								Total		Percent*	
	I		II		III		IV					
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1	2	2	20	27	26	37	5	8	53	72	41.40	56.25
2	0	4	6	38	9	53	2	10	17	105	13.28	82.03
3	2	2	7	40	2	59	3	8	14	109	10.93	85.15
4	1	3	2	42	0	59	1	9	4	113	3.12	88.28
5	0	4	1	42	0	59	0	8	1	113	.78	88.28
6	0	4	2	41	1	59	1	9	4	113	3.12	88.28

\*Note: Some administrators did not answer all of the questions in this table. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study. Where the sum of "Yes-No" percentages does not equal 100, the difference indicates those schools which did not respond.

Of the 128 schools participating 56 percent do not rate teachers as to quality of service rendered. In 82 percent of the schools, the administrator's rating has no bearing upon salary. No increase in salary is granted for attending summer school in 85 percent of the schools; in some schools teachers are compelled to attend at three year intervals in order to retain their positions. Salary increases are provided in only 3 percent of the schools for educative travel, and for taking professional courses during the term. Only one school rewards teachers with salary increases for attending conferences during the summer vacation period.

Little progress has been made in Montana toward the objective stated in the report of the National Education Association. However, cognizance must be taken of the fact that the present survey is being made during a period of economic stress, and many of the

more progressive schools may have been compelled, of financial necessity, to abandon programs for rewarding teachers for professional improvement. A few of the administrators responding indicated that such has been the case in their schools.

### III. METHODS EMPLOYED IN SALARY REDUCTIONS

In times of business and economic depression there is a strong tendency to curtail expenditures for education. The largest single item in school expenditures is teachers' salaries, and the demand for retrenchment directed primarily at salaries.

Cooke states that "There is need for real economy in school expenditures, but there is grave danger in the false economies which result in a reduction of teaching efficiency."<sup>81</sup> Admonishing teachers to become active and militant in the fight against unreasonable salary cuts, Cooke continues:

"If teachers' salaries are significantly reduced during this economic depression, what assurance is there that they will be raised when times are good? It has required fifteen years to secure an appreciable increase in teachers' salaries. With a continued reduction now, the work of educating the public during these fifteen years to a fair salary for teachers will be undone."<sup>82</sup>

Nevertheless, salary reductions, many of them unreasonable, have been made in Montana schools.

### Table XVIII: Methods and Procedures Employed by School Boards

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81. Cooke, op. cit., p. 108.

82. Ibid., p. 108.

## in Teachers' Salary Reductions.

Method employed	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent*
	I	II	III	IV		
Uniform percentage reduction	1	27	30	2	60	52.34
Uniform fixed sum reduction	1	14	16	1	32	25.00
Each teacher's salary separately considered	0	4	15	0	19	14.84
Salaries of least efficient teachers reduced	0	1	1	0	2	1.56
Salaries above certain amount reduced	1	5	1	2	9	7.03
Miscellaneous methods	0	1	0	0	1	.78
Total reports	3	52	63	12	130	-

\*Note: Some administrators checked more than one item. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study.

More than 52 percent of the 128 schools studied employed the uniform percentage method of reducing salaries, while 25 percent made uniform fixed sum reductions. In nearly 15 percent of the schools each teacher's salary was separately considered by the board, and in 7 percent the higher salaries were cut to a lower level. In 2 schools a rating system was applied by means of which the salaries of the less efficient teachers were reduced. No similar study has come to the attention of the author, consequently these data do not lend themselves to comparison.

## IV. SALARY DISCRIMINATIONS

Lewis states that "It is not yet possible in most places to wipe out the distinctions in salaries that exist between men and women."<sup>83</sup> Let us examine the situation in Montana schools.

Table XIX: Status of Salaries of Men vs. Women Teachers, and Married Men vs. Unmarried Men and Women. Tabulations by Districts of Replies to the Following Questions:

1. Are there positions in your school system in which men receive higher salaries than women with equal duties, training and experience?

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83. Lewis, op. cit., p. 294.

2. If there are married men on your staff, do they, because of their married status, receive higher salaries than single men or women with equal duties, training and experience?

Questions stated above	Frequencies by districts										Total		Percent*	
	I		II		III		IV							
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No		
	1	0	4	20	27	16	46	6	5	42	82	32.81	64.06	
2	1	3	7	38	4	53	1	10	13	104	10.15	81.25		

\*Note: Some administrators did not answer all the questions in this table. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study. Where the sum of "Yes-No" percentages does not equal 100, the difference indicates those schools which did not respond.

Salary discriminations exist in favor of men in nearly 33 percent of the schools, whereas they have been eliminated in 64 percent. Married men, because of their marital status, receive higher salaries than single men or women in 10 percent of the schools; in 31 percent no distinctions are made in their favor.

#### A. Discriminations between men and women

Table XX reveals the positions in which salary discriminations are made in favor of men. Forty-two school systems reported that such salary differentials exist. Since more than one position is affected in many systems, the total number of positions reported is several times the number of schools which report paying men higher salaries than women.

Table XX: Positions in which Salary Differentials Occur: Men Receive Higher Salaries than Women having Equal Duties, Training and Experience:

Types of positions	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent**
	I	II	III	IV		
Elementary teachers	0	1	3	*	4	9.52
Junior high school teachers	0	3	3	*	6	14.27
Senior high school teachers	0	9	6	3	18	42.86
Special instructors	0	2	3	2	7	16.67
Athletic coaches	0	17	10	4	31	73.85
Elementary principal	0	5	1	*	6	14.27
High school principal	0	8	2	2	12	28.56
Total reports	0	45	28	11	84	-

\* County high schools do not maintain elementary or junior high school grades.

\*\*Percentages based on a total of 42 schools reporting salary differ-

entials in favor of men teachers.

The athletic coaching position leads in salary discriminations if favor of men. In nearly 74 percent of the 42 schools reporting, such salary differences occur. In nearly 43 percent of the 42 schools, men receive higher salaries than women in senior high school positions; in 14 percent of the schools, they receive higher salaries in junior high school positions; and in 9.5 percent, men receive higher salaries in elementary grade positions. Moreover, 14 percent of the elementary principals and 28.5 percent of the high school principals were men who received higher salaries than women having equal duties, training and experience.

#### B. Discriminations in Favor of Married Men

Table XXI presents data with respect to salary discriminations in favor of married men. Differentials due to the marital status of men are not nearly so common in Montana schools. Only 13 systems reported that they paid higher salaries to married men.

Table XXI: Positions in which Salary Differentials Occur: Married Men Receive Higher Salaries than Single Men or Women Having Equal Duties, Training and Experience.

Types of positions	Frequencies by Districts				Total	Percent**
	I	II	III	IV		
Elementary teachers	1	0	1	*	2	15.38
Junior high school teachers	1	2	1	*	4	30.76
Senior high school teachers	1	3	3	1	10	76.92
Special instructors	0	0	0	0	0	0.00
Athletic coaches	0	3	1	0	4	30.76
Elementary principal	0	1	1	*	2	15.38
High school principal	0	2	1	0	3	23.08
Total reports	3	13	8	1	25	-

\* County high schools do not maintain elementary or junior high school grades.

\*\*Note: Percentages based on a total of 13 schools reporting salary differentials in favor of married men.

Of the 13 schools reporting salary discriminations if favor of married men, 10 paid higher salaries to married men in senior high

school positions, 4 in junior high school positions, 4 in athletic coaching positions, and 2 in elementary teaching positions. Three high school and two elementary principals were married men who, because of their marital status, received higher salaries than women or unmarried men holding positions of equal rank.

#### V. NUMBER OF MONTHLY SALARY PAYMENTS

The Research Division of the National Education Association reports that:

"There has been some tendency to extend the payment of a teacher's annual salary over the full twelve months. . . . Teachers must live twelve months. Their vacation period should be so financed that they may use it for professional improvement and recreation. . . . On the other hand . . . teachers should be sufficient masters of their own affairs so that it makes little difference whether the total sum is received in nine, ten, or twelve payments. This question is a matter of opinion."<sup>84</sup>

For those seeking the facts in Montana, Table XXII reveals the extent to which the movement for twelve payments has progressed.

Table XXII: Number of Months over which the Payment of Teachers' Annual Salaries Extends.

Number of months	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
Nine	1	31	52	4	88	53.75
Ten	2	14	9	5	30	23.43
Twelve	1	4	3	2	10	7.82
Total reports	4	49	64	11	128	100.00

In 88 schools the traditional nine months' plan is retained; 30 schools pay teachers on a ten month basis; and only 10 schools have adopted the twelve month payment plan.

The Research Division<sup>85</sup> nationwide survey reveals that 40 percent of the 1532 schools reporting retain the nine month plan of payment, while 47.5 percent pay teachers salaries in ten installments and 11 percent have adopted the twelve month payment plan.

<sup>84</sup>. National Educ. Association, Research Division, op. cit., p.249.

<sup>85</sup>. Ibid., p. 249.

## VI. THE SICK LEAVE PROBLEM

The literature dealing with this question presents an array of opinions both favorable and unfavorable to the granting of sick leave with salary. Those favoring the practice contend that it tends to increase efficiency, that it is in accord with enlightened practice in other occupations, that the meagreness of most teachers' salaries makes it necessary, and that properly administered the abuse involved is negligible. Those opposing contend that the practice involves an undesirable paternalism, that teachers should protect themselves against illness, that teaching offers no special illness hazards, and the abuses are likely to follow the adoption of a sick leave plan.

Cooke takes the former position in the sick leave question:

"The school board should provide leaves of absence with some remuneration for recovery and rest. . . . Under no conditions should a teacher, when absent on the basis of a physician's orders, be asked to accept a reduction in pay for five or ten days of illness."<sup>86</sup>

Lewis endorses the same practice as follows: "Many boards of education allow teachers from five to ten days a year sick leave on full pay. This practice is a frank recognition of facts as they exist. Such a privilege is rarely abused."<sup>87</sup> The present writer is inclined to subscribe to these views.

Research has not proceeded to the point where it offers a sure guide in dealing with the question. In recent years there has been a trend toward the adoption of provisions which indemnify the teacher for illness. Let us examine how far this movement has progressed in Montana. The data are set forth in Table XXIII. Not all the administrators submitted complete responses to the inquiry,

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<sup>86</sup>. Cooke, op. cit., p. 365.

<sup>87</sup>. Lewis, op. cit., p. 406.

consequently the data are not very representative.

**Table XXIII: Payment of Salary during Teachers' Absence due to Illness, Death in Family, or Similar Causes.**

Methods and time of payment	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
1. Receives full salary	3	32	32	8	75	58.59
Less than 5 days	0	8	12	2	20	15.62
5-9 days	2	12	7	0	21	16.40
10-14 days	1	4	4	0	9	7.03
15-19 days	0	0	0	3	3	2.34
20 days and over	0	4	2	0	6	4.68
During absence	0	3	4	1	8	6.25
Indefinite time	0	3	3	2	8	6.25
2. Receives half salary	1	2	1	0	4	3.12
Less than 5 days						
5-9 days						
10-14 days	0	0	1	0	1	.78
15-19 days						
20 days and over	1	2	0	0	3	2.34
During absence						
Indefinite time						
3. Forfeits full salary	0	2	11	0	13	10.15
Less than 5 days	0	0	1	0	1	.78
5-9 days	0	0	3	0	3	2.34
10-14 days						
15-19 days						
20 days and over						
During absence	0	2	5	0	7	5.46
Indefinite time	0	0	2	0	2	1.56
4. Board pays substitute	2	21	15	2	40	31.25
Less than 5 days	0	5	2	2	9	7.03
5-9 days	0	7	3	0	12	9.37
10-14 days	1	2	2	0	5	3.90
15-19 days						
20 days and over	0	0	1	0	1	.78
During absence	1	4	2	0	7	5.46
Indefinite time	0	3	3	0	6	4.68
5. Teachers pay substitute	1	20	30	3	56	43.75
Less than 5 days	0	5	0	0	5	3.90
5-9 days	0	3	4	0	7	5.46
10-14 days	0	0	2	0	2	1.56
15-19 days						
20 days and over	0	2	1	0	3	2.34
During absence	1	4	19	2	26	20.31
Indefinite time	0	6	4	3	13	10.15
Number reporting	3	42	45	8	98	--



In 75 of the 128 schools participating teachers are granted some sick leave with full salary. Full salary is granted for less than ten days in 32 percent, and for more than ten days in 14 percent of the schools. In 6 percent full salary is paid to the teacher during absence, likewise 6 percent receive full salary for an indefinite time. Teachers are required to forfeit their salary during illness in 10 percent of the schools.

The board of trustees pays the substitute during all or part of the absence of a teacher in 31 percent of the 128 schools; in 16 percent of the cases the payment runs for less than ten days of absence, in nearly 5 percent for more than ten days, and in 10 percent for an indefinite period or during absence. The teacher receives her full salary and pays the substitute in nearly 44 percent of the schools; in 20 percent of the schools she does so during her absence, in 10 percent for an indefinite time, and in 14 percent for a stated period ranging from less than 5 days to 20 days or more.

A more careful evaluation of experience and additional research will eventually offer a clearer answer to the desirability of granting sick leave with salary and as to the type of plan which means most for school efficiency. The growth of the movement for sick leave emphasizes the need for maintaining a positive program designed to encourage physical and mental health among the members of the teaching staff. Existing evidence, however, seems to indicate that teachers, whether working under a sick leave plan or not, are absent a surprisingly small number of days during the school year. With this professional attitude as a foundation, a morale can be built and maintained which will secure the conscientious and intelligent cooperation of practically all teachers.

## VII. SALARY SCHEDULING

The science of salary scheduling is still far from perfect. Recent years, however, have brought forth decided progress in the development of principles and techniques which should be employed in the intelligent scheduling of salaries. Some of the principles, advanced by authorities in salary administration will now be quoted.

### A. Principles of Salary Schedule Construction

Cubberley sets forth the following principles for construction of a salary schedule:

- "1. A high enough beginning salary to enable the school to secure a well trained teachers, but not too high.
- "2. Small automatic annual increases for a period of six or eight years during which time the teacher is gaining in competency.
- "3. Provision whereby experienced teachers from elsewhere may be taken into the system and started at some point in the scale above that for beginning teachers.
- "4. Further salary increases to progressive and capable teachers who meet certain standards, such increases being made to stimulate industry, encourage improvement, and reward exceptional merit.
- "5. Such an arrangement of salaries as will permit assignment of every teacher to that position or kind of work which he or she can do best.
- "6. Special salaries attached to positions calling for special capacity, to which especially capable teachers are assigned.
- "7. For promotion from one grade to another, evidence of professional growth and high classroom efficiency should be required.
- "8. For such evidence, approved summer school study may be accepted; high classroom efficiency should be determined by a large combination of tests of different types, given by different individuals.
- "9. The maxima for teachers who remain in the work and make teaching a professional career should be about two times the beginning salary for the same class of work; such maxima should not be attainable until about 18 or 20 years of service.<sup>88</sup>

Cooke suggests six principles to follow in putting a salary schedule into operation:

- "1. No teacher's salary should be reduced as the result of a new schedule.

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<sup>88</sup>. Cubberley, op. cit., pp. 395-396.

- "2. All new teachers should be placed on the new schedule at once, provided the minimum qualifications are met.
- "3. All teachers' salaries should be increased to the minimum to which their qualifications entitle them, except teachers whose inefficiency has been clearly demonstrated.
- "4. Teachers reaching more than the minimum for their group should receive no annual increment until the group has advanced to their present level.
- "5. Teachers who have been receiving more than the maximum for their group should receive no further increases until further training is secured.
- "6. Teachers who come into the system with experience should be placed above the minimum for the group. Two years of outside teaching experience should be equal to one year in the system." <sup>89</sup>

### B. Advantages of Salary Schedules

Almack and Lang state that:

"There are many advantages of a salary schedule based on common principles. By it teachers will be protected against exploitation. They will be paid enough to maintain a good standard of living . . . . They will be offered an inducement to stay permanently in the profession. Merit will be compensated, though inadequately. Injustice and discrimination will be prevented. Teachers may change, from schools without loss." <sup>90</sup>

Lewis lists nine definite advantages as follows;

- "1. A salary schedule is impersonal
- "2. It deals justly with new teachers
- "3. It deals justly with home teachers
- "4. It makes teaching a profession
- "5. It secures better preparation
- "6. It increases tenure and decreases turnover
- "7. It stimulates teachers to greater achievement
- "8. It improves the social status of teachers
- "9. It helps fix the yearly budget." <sup>91</sup>

Reeder says:

"A salary schedule is advantageous both to the administration and to the teacher. To the administration it is a salary plan. In particular it is helpful in budget making because it indicates . . . how much money will be needed each year . . . to meet the largest item in the budget, namely, teachers' salaries . . . . To the teacher, it assures that at least approximate justice will be given her. When a schedule is in operation the teacher will know what her normal expectancy in

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89. Cooke, op. cit., pp. 265-266.

90. Almack and Lang, op. cit., p. 247.

91. Lewis, op. cit., pp. 279-282.

salary will be in two, five, or ten years hence. When there is no salary schedule the teacher is left to secure as much as she can, and school officials are left to pay no more than they must."

### C. Rewarding Merit.

In constructing a salary schedule superintendents and their boards are frequently faced with the problem of compensating the teacher with special merit. By rigid adherence to the salary schedule it is difficult to give superiors special or extra compensation. Yet most authorities agree that merit should be rewarded in the pay check.

Lewis says: "There should be enough flexibility in the salary schedule to provide extra pay for teachers of extra ability. In other words, merit should be recognized, other factors being equal."<sup>93</sup>

Cooke believes:

"Compensation for special merit has advantages. It is in accordance with universally accepted ideas of justice; it is recognized in principles and practice in industry and professions other than teaching; its acceptance and incorporation into teachers' salary schedules will make strong appeals to ambitious young men and women. The merit principle will stimulate effort on the part of teachers already in the service . . ."<sup>94</sup>

### D. The Single Salary Schedule.

A single salary schedule is one which gives equal pay for equal qualifications and equal service. It also pays men teachers the same salary as women, provided their qualifications are equal. Table XXIV presents an illustrative single salary schedule.

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92. Reeder, op. cit., p. 122.

93. Lewis, op. cit., p. 279.

94. Cooke, op. cit., p. 273.

**Table XXIV: A Type of Single Salary Schedule (Great Falls Public Schools, Courtesy of Irving W. Smith, Superintendent).**

Amount of professional training required	Entrance Salary	Annual Increment	Number of Increments	Maximum Salary
Two years	\$1000	\$100	8	\$1800
Three years	1100	100	9	2000
Four years	1200	100	10	2200
Five years	1300	100	11	2400

According to this schedule a teacher with two years of normal school training employed in any grade shall receive a minimum salary of \$1000, an annual increment of \$100, each year for eight years or until the maximum of \$1800 is reached. Likewise a teacher with four years of college preparation employed in any grade or in the high school would receive a minimum of \$1200, an annual increment of \$100 for ten years until the salary reaches a maximum of \$2200.

Morris defines the single salary schedule as follows: "A single salary schedule is any schedule of teachers' salaries that attempts to measure all teachers in the system by the same scale, whatever elements may be included, and pays them accordingly." <sup>95</sup> Following his definition, Morris lists the arguments for and against the single salary scale. He finds the following advantages:

- "1. It gives equal pay for equal training and experience
- "2. It gives equal pay to men and women for the same service
- "3. It is easy to operate
- "4. It eliminates class consciousness
- "5. It contributes to unity and satisfaction in the corps
- "6. It promotes tenure
- "7. It attracts superior ability and training to the elementary school
- "8. It gives teachers a higher appreciation of their service
- "9. It emphasizes high standards of attainment
- "10. It encourages professional study and growth
- "11. It permits transfer of teachers without financial loss <sup>96</sup>."

<sup>95</sup>. Morris, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>96</sup>. Ibid., pp. 4-5.

The following disadvantages of the single salary schedule are stated by Morris:

- "1. It is a subterfuge in personnel administration
- "2. It eliminates the necessity of rating teachers and paying according to merit.
- "3. It discourages efficiency and initiative
- "4. It is difficult to adjust between men and women teachers
- "5. Training is not the chief characteristic of a good teacher
- "6. Elementary teachers do not need as much training as do junior and senior high school teachers
- "7. The cost will be excessive in any case."<sup>97</sup>

To the principles laid down in the foregoing discussion, the present writer subscribes. This material is included here to lay the basis for examining current practice in Montana in the matter of salary scheduling. These data will now be presented.

#### VIII. SALARY SCHEDULES IN MONTANA SCHOOLS

Less than 40 percent of the schools reporting in this survey pay teachers according to a salary schedule. Table XIV reveals the extent of this movement and types of schedules employed.

Table XIV: The Employment of Salary Schedules and Types Used in Montana School Systems.

Salary schedule and type used	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
Salary schedule						
Yes	4	22	18	7	51	39.84
No	0	24	42	2	70	54.68
No report	0	3	4	0	7	5.48
Type of schedule						
Single	4	20	11	4	39	76.47
Dual	0	1	0	0	1	1.98
Merit	0	1	7	3	11	21.57
Number reporting	4	49	64	11	128	100.00

Of the 128 schools cooperating only 51 systems employ salary schedules; whereas 70 systems do not pay teachers salaries on the basis of a schedule. Of the 51 salary schedule schools, 39 use the

<sup>97</sup>. Morris, op. cit., p. 5.

single salary scale; two schools employ a "dual" schedule, and 11 systems pay salaries by means of a "merit-reward" schedule. These data reveal that there is much room for improvement upon this issue in Montana. However, some school formerly on schedules, have been forced to abandon them due to the stress in school finances during the depression. A number of administrators made notations to this effect in their responses.

**Table XXVI: Analysis of Salary Schedules Reported by School Administrators: Lowest, Median and Highest Entrance Salaries by Class of District.**

Positions and entrance salaries	Salary data by districts				Combined districts
	I	II	III	IV	
<b>Primary grades</b>				*	
Highest	\$1200	\$1260	\$1250		\$1260
Lowest	1000	800	765		800
Range	200	860	485		660
Median	1100	950	900		\$900
<b>Intermediate grades</b>				*	
Highest	1200	1260	1250		1260
Lowest	1000	800	765		800
Range	200	860	485		660
Median	1100	950	900		900
<b>Junior high school</b>				*	
Highest	1200	1260	1250		1260
Lowest	1000	800	850		800
Range	200	660	400		660
Median	1100	950	990		990
<b>Senior high school</b>					
Highest	1400	1400	1400	1550	1550
Lowest	1200	800	990	1200	800
Range	200	600	410	350	750
Median	1300	1100	1125	1200	1125

\* County high schools do not maintain elementary and junior high school grades.

The table indicates the highest entrance salary to be \$1260 and the lowest \$800 in the primary and intermediate grades and junior high school. The median entrance salary in the primary and intermediate grades is \$900 where it is \$990 in the junior high school. The widest range in entrance salaries occurs in the second

class district schools. In the senior high school the highest entrance salary is \$1550, the lowest \$800, and the median \$1125. Again the greatest range occurs in the second class district schools.

**Table XXVII: Analysis of Salary Schedules Reported by School Administrators: Lowest, Median and Highest Maximum Salaries by Class of District.**

Positions and maximum salaries	Salary data by districts				Combined districts
	I	II	III	IV	
Primary grades				*	
Highest	\$1800	\$1820	\$1500		\$1800
Lowest	1540	700	850		700
Range	260	920	650		1100
Median	1675	1200	1125		1200
Intermediate grades				*	
Highest	1800	1820	1500		1800
Lowest	1540	700	850		700
Range	260	920	650		1100
Median	1675	1200	1125		1200
Junior high school				*	
Highest	2000	1820	1500		2000
Lowest	1595	700	1035		700
Range	405	920	465		1300
Median	1750	1260	1250		1250
Senior high school					
Highest	2400	1800	1600	2100	2400
Lowest	1810	900	1080	1400	900
Range	590	900	520	700	1500
Median	2100	1400	1350	1750	1600

\* County high schools do not maintain elementary and junior high school grades.

The above data show the highest maximum salary to the \$1800 and the lowest \$700, in the primary and intermediate grades. The range in maximum salaries is \$1100 and the median is \$1200 in these elementary grade divisions. In the junior high school the highest maximum salary is \$2000, the lowest \$700, indicating a range of \$1300, and a median salary of \$1250. The senior high school maximum salaries range from \$2400 down to \$900, with the median salary at \$1650. The greatest range in maximum salaries in all four divisions occurs again in the second class districts.



## IX. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Authorities in personnel administration advocate financial rewards to teachers for professional advancement secured by summer school study, educative travel, professional study during the school year, etc. Little progress has been made in Montana toward such goals. No increase in salary is granted for attending summer school in 85 percent of the schools; only 4 schools reward teachers financially for educative travel or taking professional courses during the term.

In nearly all the schools of Montana salary reductions have been made during the depression. More than 52 percent made uniform percentage reductions, 25 percent made uniform fixed sum reductions, and nearly 15 percent considered each teacher's case separately.

The practice of discriminating in favor of men is severely denounced by most authorities on school administration. Yet salary distinctions are made in favor of men in 33 percent of the schools; and in favor of married men, because of their marital status, in 10 percent. The athletic coaching position leads all others in which salary discriminations in favor of men are made.

Teachers' salaries are paid on a nine-month basis in 69 percent of the schools, on a ten-month plan in 25 percent; and on a twelve-payment plan in only 8 percent. Opinion is divided among education authorities as to the merits of the twelve-month payment plan; some see no advantages in abandoning the traditional nine-month basis.

Granting of sick leave for a limited time (5 to 10 days annually) with pay is quite generally favored by authorities on personnel administration. In 59 percent of the Montana schools teachers are

granted some time for sick leave with full salary. The time varies from 2 to 20 days. Full salary is paid by the boards during a teacher's sick leave for less than 10 days in 32 percent of the schools reporting. The most common practice upon this problem is: The teacher receives full salary during absence and pays the substitute herself. The practice is followed in 44 percent of the schools.

Authorities in school administration are virtually unanimous in their support of schedules for paying teachers' salaries. The advantages of salaries schedules may be summed up briefly: It protects teachers against exploitation; it improves tenure and reduces turnover; it fosters professional improvement; it deals justly with home talent and new teachers; it compensates merit; it prevents discrimination; it improves teachers' social status; it makes teaching a profession; and it fixes the yearly salary budget.

How to reward merit is a tough problem in the construction of a salary schedule, yet authorities in administration favor some financial recognition for superior service or ability.

A single salary schedule is one which gives equal pay for equal qualifications and equal service. It does not discriminate between men and women with equal qualifications and duties. The single salary schedule conflicts with the principle that merit, efficiency, superior service or ability should be awarded.

Less than 40 percent of the Montana schools reporting in this survey pay teachers salaries according to a schedule. However, financial stress during the depression has forced a number of schools to abandon their salary schedules.

In the schedules reported, the widest range in both entrance and maximum salaries occurred in the second class district schools. The median entrance salary for primary and intermediate grade positions was found to be \$900; for junior high school positions it is \$990, and for senior high school positions it is \$1125. The median salaries from primary and intermediate grade positions was found to be \$1200. In the junior high school it was found to be \$1250 and in the senior high school the median maximum salary is \$1650. The highest maximum salary reported in these salary schedules is \$2400, the lowest entrance salary is \$600, indicating a very wide range in salaries for classroom teachers.

Practices and procedures in paying salaries of teachers in Montana have been seriously affected by the depression. Conditions revealed by the data presented in this chapter should improve materially if, and when, a business revival sets in and school finances improve.

## CHAPTER VI: THE STATUS OF MARRIED WOMEN TEACHERS

### I. THE PROBLEM STATED

Should married women be employed as teachers? Should single women who marry be allowed to continue to teach? These questions have been the subject of much discussion and some research. Opinion is widely divided, but during the last few years agitation against employing married women has become more insistent.

A woman teacher's marriage is equivalent to her resignation in a majority of Montana school districts. Where there are no formal rules, the policy pursued is refusal to reappoint. Few school boards place married women on a par with unmarried except when they are widowed or need to make their own living.

Lewis presents three reasons to explain this prejudice against married women teachers:

"The first is the public bounty fallacy. Many laymen hold that the tax-paid positions belong to the needy citizens. A married woman presumably has a means of support; an unmarried woman has none. The second reason is that it is the first business of a woman to look after her home, and this duty cannot be properly fulfilled if the woman teaches. The third reason is given by superintendents. They argue that married women are home talent and are harder to handle.... It is expedient, therefore, to rule against all married women as a class rather than to deal with each case on its merits."<sup>68</sup>

### II. ARGUMENTS AGAINST THE EMPLOYMENT OF MARRIED WOMEN TEACHERS

Lewis lists 18 arguments against the employment of married women teachers:

- "1. The state benefits more by having the stronger and more attractive women produce and rear the next generation.
- "2. Married women have their thoughts and interests in the home and teach only for the money.

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<sup>68</sup> Lewis, op. cit., p. 174

- "3. Married teachers cannot carry both their home and school duties without becoming cross and irritable.
- "4. Married women have too many other interests besides their professional duties.
- "5. Inefficient married women are hard to eliminate.
- "6. Married teachers increase the home teacher problem. This induces inbreeding and lowers efficiency.
- "7. The married woman's place is in the home.
- "8. Married women will work for less and lower the salary standard.
- "9. Married women have no time for summer study and research.
- "10. Motherhood is the first duty of the married woman and nothing should be allowed to interfere with it.
- "11. It is not for the best interests of the pupils to be taught by married teachers.
- "12. Married women who are pregnant are objectionable in the classroom.
- "13. Married women frequently do not need the money except for luxuries, and hence they deprive needy single teachers of jobs.
- "14. Married women are independent and do not feel under obligation to assume added school duties.
- "15. The school board has the whole family on its hands; the school becomes a charitable institution.
- "16. Married women practice birth control to a pernicious extent and unconsciously influence pupils to such views of life."99

### III. ARGUMENTS FAVORING THE EMPLOYMENT OF MARRIED WOMEN TEACHERS.

Sixteen arguments favoring the employment of married women teachers are also presented by Lewis:

- "1. The teaching profession is benefited by retaining the strong and more attractive women.
- "2. Many married women teach for the love of the work.
- "3. Married women are better in discipline.
- "4. Married women are more intelligently interested in children.
- "5. The state gets more from the training of teachers if those trained are allowed to continue to teach after marriage.
- "6. Married women are more permanent and reduce teacher turnover.
- "7. Married teachers are home teachers and support the local community more.
- "8. Many married women need the money.
- "9. Married women can be hired more cheaply.
- "10. Married women are better disciplined through experience and receive criticism in a better spirit.
- "11. Married women are permitted in most other trades and professions.
- "12. Merit of a teacher alone should count. Society profits

most through teachers who understand children.

- "13. Married women are more settled and keep better hours; they are less interested in social pleasures.
- "14. Teaching enables married women to gain culture and thus give a higher quality of care to their families.
- "15. Married women have more economic security and are more settled in the profession.
- "16. Married women give more in service than they get in salary."<sup>100</sup>

#### IV. PROFESSIONAL OPINION UPON THE MARRIED TEACHER PROBLEM

Almack and Lang see no basis of fact in the arguments against married women teachers:

"Most of the objections to married women do not seem to be well taken. . . . Teaching cannot become a profession if members desert or are forced to leave its ranks after two or three years of service."<sup>101</sup>

Ewing, writing in "Harper's Magazine", concludes that

"The most cogent argument.....is that our public schools cannot afford to sacrifice teachers who have had extensive training and experience if the latter are willing to continue to serve the community. Indeed such teachers represent a social investment for they have been trained by.....institutions supported by the state or by private endowment, and as beginners they have gained their experience at the expense....of the public schools themselves."<sup>102</sup>

Neither favoring nor opposing married women, Lewis declares that: "Individual merit, and merit only, should determine the status of married women as teachers. . . There is no way to catalogue women solely on their marital status."<sup>103</sup>

Cook is opposed, under present economic conditions, to the employment of married women teachers; "A blanket ruling against the employment of married women teachers should be adopted only as a last resort. But when all indirect measures have failed to prevent their employment, a blanket ruling against them is in order."<sup>104</sup>

<sup>100</sup>. Lewis, op. cit., p. 165-88

<sup>101</sup>. Almack and Lang, op. cit., p. 223

<sup>102</sup>. Ewing, Stephen "Blue Laws for School Teachers", Harper's Monthly Magazine, New York, p. 329-38, February, 1928.

<sup>103</sup>. Lewis, op. cit., 184

<sup>104</sup>. Cooke, op. cit., p. 315

## V. LEGAL ASPECTS OF THE PROBLEM

In one phase of his investigation of the status of the woman teacher, Peters<sup>105</sup> deals with the legal aspects of the problem. He cites from court decisions to support the following six legal principles which he lays down:

1. In the absence of limitation by statute law a school board can determine its own policies as to marital status of women in employing teachers.

2. Where statute specifies causes for which a teacher may be dismissed, a board rule setting up marriage of women teachers as an additional cause for dismissal is not valid.

3. Teachers under permanent tenure by statutory enactment are protected against school board rules providing for termination of services on account of marriage.

4. In the absence of statutory provisions to the contrary, marriage of a woman teacher is not in itself grounds for discharge.

5. In the absence of statutory provision to the contrary, a by-law, reservation in contract, or board rule to dismiss a female teacher on account of marriage may be legally enforced.

6. If a woman teacher misrepresents marital status because of a rule against employing married women in order to enjoy the benefits of employment, such misrepresentation constitutes fraud.

## VI. MARRIED WOMEN IN MONTANA SCHOOLS:

In the present study no attempt is being made to present an exhaustive analysis of the married woman teacher situation in Mont-

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105. Peters, op. cit., p. 110

tana. Rather the investigation is being confined to three major premises: (1) A determination of the employment policies with respect to married women schools of the state, (2) an appraisal of the quality of service rendered by married women in comparison with unmarried women teachers, and (3) an evaluation of married women teachers in contrast with unmarried women on six specific items of teaching service. Data on the first of these three problems is represented in Table XXVIII.

#### A. Employment Policies

**Table XXVIII: The Status of Married Women Teachers: Tabulations by Districts of Replies to the Following Questions:**

1. Does your board have a rule against the employment of married women teachers?
2. Does your board require women who marry during the term to resign at once?
3. Are teachers who marry dismissed at the expiration of their contracts?
4. Is the fact that a married women may have children and an unemployed, disabled, or dependent husband regarded by your board as justification for her employment?
5. Are you opposed to the employment of married women?

Questions stated above	Frequencies by districts											
	I		II		III		IV		Total		Percent	
	Yes	no	Yes	no	Yes	no	Yes	no	Yes	no	Yes	No
1	2	1	29	6	41	22	8	3	90	32	70.31	25.00
2	4	0	14	24	16	44	3	7	37	75	28.90	58.59
3	1	1	27	6	32	17	7	2	67	28	52.34	20.31
4	1	3	21	22	21	35	5	6	48	66	37.50	51.56
5	2	2	18	22	26	35	4	7	50	68	39.06	51.56

The table reveals that in 70 percent of the 128 schools studied school boards have rules opposing the employment of married women teachers, while 25 percent have no such rules. In nearly 29 percent of the schools, women teachers who marry are required to resign at once, while in nearly 50 percent this requirement is not made. In



52 percent of the schools, married women are dismissed upon the expiration of their contracts. In 37.5 percent of the schools, the fact that a married woman may have dependents is considered a justifiable reason for her employment; on the other hand, this situation is not recognized in more than 51 percent. Slightly more than 39 percent of the administrators responding are opposed to the employment of married women, whereas more than 51 percent express no opposition. One administrator, in explaining his opposition to married women, made the following interesting comment: "Personally I believe a married woman's place is in the home. She can do some real teaching there, and the position is the highest in the world." The married teacher problem is a highly controversial one over the state. No well defined employment policies seem to prevail; each school system is handling the problem in accordance with its own local opinions and demands.

#### B. Quality of Service Rendered

Several studies have been made to ascertain the quality of service rendered by married women teachers in contrast with unmarried women. All indicate that no appreciable difference can be found. Table XXIX summarizes the evaluation by their superintendents of service rendered by married women in Montana schools.

Table XXIX: General Rating by Administrators of the Quality of Service Rendered by Married Women in Comparison with Unmarried Women Teachers.

Quality of service rendered	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent*
	I	II	III	IV		
Decidedly superior	0	6	5	0	11	17.18
Slightly better	0	2	5	1	8	12.50
Equal quality	2	16	15	2	35	54.68
Slightly inferior	0	3	2	1	6	9.37
Decidedly inferior	0	1	1	0	2	3.12
No married women	2	21	34	7	64	50.00
No report	0	0	2	0	2	1.56
Total reports	4	49	64	11	128	

**\*Note:** Percentages based on a total of 62 schools reporting the employment of married women teachers.

In exactly 50 percent of the schools reporting no married women are employed as teachers. Two schools did not report; in the remaining 62 schools married women are employed. In more than 54 percent of these 62 schools, married teachers render service of equal quality; in 12.50 percent they render slightly superior service, whereas in more than 17 percent they render decidedly superior service. Only 12.5 percent of the married women render service of inferior quality, of which 9 percent render slightly inferior and only 3 percent render decidedly inferior service. From these ratings made by the administrators, it would appear that no justification can exist, resting on professional grounds, for discrimination against married women teachers as a class. In nearly 85 percent of the schools they render service equal or superior to unmarried women.

#### C. Evaluation on Specific Items of Service

Table XXX attempts to analyze further the quality of service rendered by married women in contrast with unmarried women teachers. Six specific items of teaching service have been submitted to the administrators for their evaluation.

Table XXX on next page.

**Table XXX: Comparison of Married Women with Unmarried Women Teachers on Specific Items of Teaching Service.**

Items of Comparison	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
Daily preparation of school work						
Less	0	3	3	1	7	10.93
Equal	2	17	15	3	37	57.81
More	0	5	4	0	9	14.06
Assistance to extra curricular activities						
Less	0	7	4	1	12	18.75
Equal	2	12	15	3	32	56.25
More	0	2	2	0	4	6.25
Professional attitude						
Less	0	5	3	1	9	14.06
Equal	1	16	11	3	31	48.43
More	1	3	5	0	9	14.06
Professional training						
Less	0	4	3	1	8	12.50
Equal	2	17	14	3	36	56.25
More	0	3	4	0	7	10.93
Interest in pupils						
Less	0	2	1	0	3	4.68
Equal	2	14	13	4	33	51.56
More	0	9	9	0	18	28.12
Interest in community						
Less	0	3	3	0	6	9.37
Equal	1	12	12	3	28	43.75
More	1	10	8	1	20	31.25
No married women	2	21	34	7	64	50.00
Number reporting	4	49	64	11	128	

\*Note: Percentages based on a total of 62 schools reporting the employment of married women teachers.

In nearly 58 percent of the 62 schools in which married women are employed, they give equal time to daily preparation of their school work, whereas in 14 percent they give more time, and in 11 percent they spend less time. In 56 percent of the schools married women give an equal amount of assistance to extra curricular activities, in 6 percent they give more time, and in nearly 17 percent they devote less time to these activities. Married women are equally

professional in their attitude in 48 percent of the schools, less professional in 14 percent, and more professional in 14 percent. In 56 percent of the schools married women have an equal amount of professional preparation, in 11 percent they are better prepared, and in 12.5 percent they have less professional training. Married women manifest an equal interest in their pupils in more than 51 percent of the schools, take more interest in 23 percent, and less interest in less than 5 percent. The data reveals a similar trend as to interest in the community. In nearly 44 percent they take an equal interest, in 31 percent they are more interested in the community, and in 9 percent they show less interest.

These ratings of the administrators upon the six items of teaching service indicate again that married women compare very favorably with unmarried women. This is particularly true in daily preparation, interest in the pupils, and interest in the community. We may reasonably conclude that any objections to married women teachers in Montana must be based on other than professional grounds. The conditions, opinions, and prejudices, which naturally develop during a period of depression and unemployment cannot be overlooked by school boards and superintendents. But, in many cases, justification is sought within the school for such prejudices. The foregoing data would indicate that such efforts at justifying the removal of married women from the teaching staff are unwarranted.

## VII. RESULTS OF OTHER INVESTIGATIONS

For purposes of comparison, wherever the data permit of contrast, a few similar investigations covering the status of employment as well as the comparative efficiency of married teachers will

be briefly reviewed here. The criteria employed vary in each case, hence the comparisons, of necessity, will be rather subjective in nature.

#### A. Status of Employment

1. In 1928 the Research Division of the National Education Association<sup>106</sup> reported data on the policies of school boards of city school systems, as disclosed by practice, in the employment of married women teachers. These data show that 60 percent of the cities reporting do not employ married women as new teachers. Single teachers who marry while teaching have a slightly better chance of retaining their jobs, however, as this study disclosed the fact that 49 percent of the cities permit women who marry while in the system to continue as teachers.

2. The Research Division<sup>107</sup> repeated its survey upon this problem in 1931, using the same criteria employed in 1928. These data, which give the practice of the city school system in 1930-31, show that 77 percent of the schools do not employ married women as teachers new in the system, and that 37 percent permit single women who marry to continue teaching. Comparison of the results of these two studies shows a decided trend against the employment of married women teachers between 1928 and 1931. Approximately 17 percent less, of the cities reporting, employ married women as new teachers; and 12 percent less permit women to continue teaching after marriage. The decreases occurred in all sizes of cities, but the largest differences appeared in the smaller school systems.

106. National Education Association, Research Bulletin, Vol. 4, No. 4, September, 1928, pp. 218-221.

107. National Education Assoc., Res. Bull., Vol. 10, No. 1, Jan. 1932

3. The Office of Education<sup>108</sup> also conducted a survey of the policies upon the problem of the retention or dismissal of women teachers who marry while in the service. Their survey reveals that, in all sizes of cities, 28 percent of women teachers who marry are required to resign immediately, 33 percent are permitted to continue teaching until the end of the year, and 34 percent are retained in the school system if their work is satisfactory.

#### B. Comparative Efficiency

1. Lewis<sup>109</sup> reports the result of a survey of the relative efficiency of married women teachers conducted in the Detroit (Michigan) public schools. An analysis of the principals' ratings of married and unmarried women teachers was made. From this it was concluded that married women teachers rank a little higher in professional ability than the general rank of women teachers. It was also found that the ratings of women teachers in service both before and after marriage are generally higher after marriage.

2. In a study of married and single women teachers in Louisiana, Lisenby<sup>110</sup> found that married women are slightly better trained than single women; that married women have slightly more training in their academic major fields than single women, and that married women are slightly better trained professionally than single women teachers.

3. Cooke and Shanks<sup>111</sup> found no difference in the achievement

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108. Doffenbaugh and Zeigel, op. cit., page 25

109. Lewis, op. cit., p. 179

110. Lisenby "A Comparative Study of Single and Married Women Teachers in Louisiana", Master's Thesis, Louisiana State University, 1932.

111. Cooke, D. H. and Shanks, W. A. "Relative Efficiency of Married and Single Women Teachers", George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, November, 1932, p. 320-24.

of those pupils taught by married women in comparison with those taught by single women. They close with these words:

"We must conclude with an open mind on the entire problem of relative efficiency of married and single women teachers-----From these data it is impossible to say which type of teacher is superior to the other if there is any difference. The data warrant no final conclusion or generalization".<sup>112</sup>

4. Waits studied the comparative efficiency of single and married women teachers in Ohio. He drew two general conclusions: (1) When married and single women are comparable on the basis of age, training, and experience, and are employed in like situations, pupil achievement in the subjects taught is approximately the same. (2) Experienced school administrators rate and evaluate the social worth and efficiency in the teaching of single and married women about the same when they are comparable in age, training, experience, and duties performed.<sup>113</sup>

5. Peters<sup>114</sup> conducted a study of the comparative efficiency of married and unmarried women teachers in Virginia. He matched 1320 married teachers with 1320 single teachers on the basis of age, training, experience, and tenure. His conclusions with respect to comparative efficiency are stated as follows:

"When the judgments of superintendent, supervisor, and principal are combined into a single rating for each teacher, the differences in ratings are too small to be significant. A small total average exists in favor of the married teachers. . . . This study produces no evidence that justifies a policy of discrimination against married women teachers as

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<sup>112</sup>. Cooke and Shanks, op. cit., p. 324

<sup>113</sup>. Waits, L.A. "A Study of the Comparative Efficiency of Single and Married Women Teachers", Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. 8, No. 3, November, 1932, p. 633.

<sup>114</sup>. Peters, op. cit., p. 65

a class. If any relationship exists between marital status and teaching effectiveness such relationship is without adequate significance to justify its use as a determining factor in fixing employment policies".<sup>115</sup>

Upon the basis of the evidence contained in the present study, and upon the conclusions drawn in the five similar studies, the writer is led to conclude that no significant difference in comparative efficiency exists between married and unmarried women teachers. Moreover the evidence concerning relative efficiency does not justify any final conclusion. Neither opinion nor investigation suggests more than an open mind on the whole issue of comparative efficiency. A general evaluation of the evidence seems to reveal little basis for the wholesale barring of married women from teaching on the grounds that they are less efficient in the classroom than single women. Such a ruling must find its basis in opinion or prejudice, not in the results of professional investigation and evaluation.

#### VIII. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

These explanations of the prejudice against married women teachers are stated by Lewis: (1) The "public bounty" fallacy, i.e., tax paid jobs belong to needy citizens; (2) the married woman belongs in the home; and (3) the danger of inbreeding. Lewis also enumerates 16 arguments for and 16 against married women teachers; all are opinions, none has been tested by scientific investigation. Authorities in personnel administration differ in their opinions upon the problems of the married woman teacher. Some of them denounce the present prejudices against married women, when such are

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<sup>115</sup>. Ibid, p. 88



not based upon scientific investigation.

The legal status of the married woman has been quite clearly defined by court decisions: (1) School boards have power to set up restrictions against married women, (2) marriage in itself is not grounds for discharge, (3) a board rule to dismiss a married teacher may be legally enforced, (4) when statutes specify causes for which a teacher may be dismissed a board rule adding marriage as an additional cause is not valid, and (5) misrepresentation of marital status to secure employment constitutes fraud.

In 70 percent of the 128 public schools of Montana which reported in this survey, the boards have rules against the employment of married women. In 29 percent of the schools women who marry must resign at once, while in 52 percent they are dismissed at the end of the term. Slightly more than 39 percent of the Montana school administrators are opposed to the employment of married women, 51 percent express no opposition, and 10 percent are non-committal. In exactly 50 percent of the schools, or 64 out of the 128 reporting, no married women are employed at present.

Nearly 85 percent of the married women teachers of Montana were rated equal or superior to unmarried women by their administrators in quality of service rendered; only 12.5 percent were rated as inferior. Married women compared very favorably with unmarried women in six specific items of teaching service, upon which they were rated by their superintendents. These ratings may be briefly restated: (1) Daily preparation: Married women were rated equal in 58 percent of the cases, more in 14 percent. (2) Assistance to extra curricular activities: Equal in 56 percent of the cases, more in

6 percent, less in 19 percent. (3) Professional attitude: Equal in 41 percent of the cases, more in 14 percent and less in 14 percent. (4) professional preparation: Equal in 56 percent, more in 1 percent, less in 12.5 percent. (5) Interest in pupils: Equal in 31 percent, more in 28 percent, less in only 5 percent. (6) Interest in community: Equal in 44 percent, more in 31 percent, and less in only 9 percent. These ratings show that married women compare favorably with unmarried women, particularly in the first, fifth and sixth items of teaching service.

Investigations as to the status and employment policies regarding married women reveal a trend against their employment between 1928 and 1932. It is safe to assume that this trend has not diminished since 1932. The studies reveal policies unfavorable both to the employment of married women as new teachers who marry while in the service.

Five other studies on the comparative efficiency of married and unmarried women teachers are reported herein. All five fail to reveal any evidence to the effect that married women teachers, when compared under like conditions with single women, are less efficient. No appreciable differences in efficiency were discovered in any of these studies.

The present policies against the employment of married women must find their basis in economic reasons or prejudice. No data, based upon the results of professional investigation, exist to indicate that married women are less efficient in the classroom than single women. On the other hand, some justification for the present prejudice against married women teachers at the present time

exists by virtue of the unemployment situation. Investigations of comparative efficiency have not indicated that married women teachers are superior; insofar as they render only comparably equal service, the movement to distribute the positions among unmarried women has both economic and professional validity.

## CHAPTER VII: THE PROBLEM OF HOME TALENT TEACHERS

### I. DEFINITION OF HOME TALENT TEACHER

A teacher who is teaching in her home town is a home talent teacher. Usually she is a graduate of the local high school. A teacher who has graduated from a local elementary school and an out of town high school and college is not a home talent teacher.<sup>116</sup>

In the earlier days the local school was regarded as a local undertaking to be taught by local talent. As Cubberley says "The bright and attractive graduate of the last class in the local high school; the daughter of the estimable citizen; the young lady who needed to help her widowed mother were the natural persons elected to share the public bounty and to teach the children of the community."<sup>117</sup>

In the main, there are two distinct characteristics which distinguish a home talent teacher from a non-resident teacher. First, the home talent teacher attended the local schools long enough to have the methods and peculiarities of the local system engrained to the extent that she is likely to imitate the methods of those who taught her. Second, the home talent teacher has had sufficient contact with the local pupils, patrons, and public during her career as a pupil to encourage undue familiarity or lessen her influence and effectiveness.

### II. ARGUMENTS FAVORING THE EMPLOYMENT OF HOME TALENT TEACHERS

Lewis states ten arguments favoring the employment of home talent:

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<sup>116</sup>. Cooke, op. cit., p. 290

<sup>117</sup>. Cubberley, op. cit., 305

- "1. Due to better living conditions at home, local teachers maintain better health than non-resident teachers.
- "2. Some schools owe their superior standing to home talent teachers who are willing to remain at home in the face of better offers to teach elsewhere.
- "3. Many non-resident teachers are saved from costly blunders through advice given them about local conditions by home talent teachers.
- "4. Home talent teachers from leading families bring the active support of local groups to the school.
- "5. Home teachers furnish the only element of permanency to the endless procession of teachers.
- "6. Home teachers furnish the tie between non-resident teachers and the better social life of the community.
- "7. Weekend absences and extension of vacations are not often requested by home talent teachers.
- "8. Home talent teachers can properly estimate the local celebrities such as the club women with an educational hobby, the mother with the talented but misunderstood child, or the business man with practical ideas about education.
- "9. Home teachers can be and quite generally are employed at a lower salary.
- "10. The "public bounty" fallacy; tax paid positions should go to needy home talent teachers regardless of qualifications."

### III. ARGUMENTS AGAINST THE EMPLOYMENT OF HOME TALENT TEACHERS

Lewis also enumerates eight arguments against the employment of home talent teachers:

- "1. Frequently teaching at home means a double burden: home duties as well as school duties. Usually home, health, or school suffers.
- "2. Teachers are judged more generously away from home than at home. People who dislike certain home talent teachers or their families are likely to criticize unjustly.
- "3. It is difficult for the board and the superintendent to form an unbiased judgement upon home talent teachers.
- "4. If home talent teachers are unsatisfactory through incompetency, ill health, or local friction it is difficult to remove them without much hard feeling.
- "5. Non-resident teachers realize they cannot hope to retain their positions except by efficient work. Home talent teachers may resort to other means (sympathy, political pull, intimidation of the superintendent) to retain their positions.
- "6. Home talent is apt to be poorer talent simply because factors other than merit operate to hold home talent teachers in their positions.
- "7. Poor home talent in supervisory positions may saddle mediocrity on the entire teaching staff and lower the stand-

118. Lewis, op. cit., 162

ards of the school.

- "8. Home talent teachers will accept a lower salary to remain at home and teach. This reduces salary standards and makes it almost impossible to secure desirable, qualified non-resident teachers when needed."<sup>119</sup>

#### IV. PROFESSIONAL OPINION UPON THE HOME TALENT PROBLEM

Cubberley sets forth three fundamental principles of action which put the home talent teacher "on the spot":

- "1. The schools exist in no sense to afford places for teachers. No one is entitled by right to a teacher's position, except on the one basis of merit. In no way should the schools be made local family affairs, or used for local charitable, political, social, or religious purposes.
- "2. The question of where a teacher comes from is absolutely irrelevant. Home girls have no prior claim to the teaching positions, and if they desire to teach in the schools, they should be required to present qualifications equal to those of the best applicants from elsewhere.
- "3. The continual selection of teachers who have had little or no educational experience outside of the community tends to result in an inbreeding process which is inimical to the best interests of the children in school. A certain percentage of new blood from time to time is desirable and should be drawn into the system from outside."<sup>120</sup>

Lewis takes a similar position:

"The educational interests of the children should be the controlling factor. Competency and not cost, or charity, or policy should control.....The arguments against the employment of home talent are summarized in the word 'inbreeding'. Too much inbreeding lowers efficiency. Home girls have no prior claim to teaching positions in their community, and though they desire to teach in the home schools, they should be required to be qualified in every respect with the best of applicants from elsewhere."<sup>121</sup>

Reeder says:

"General rules which limit the choice to local teachers cannot be sanctioned. Such rules levy a high protective tariff on ability."<sup>122</sup>

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<sup>119</sup>. Lewis, op. cit., p. 163

<sup>120</sup>. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 308-309

<sup>121</sup>. Lewis, op. cit., p. 169-170

<sup>122</sup>. Reeder, op. cit., p. 70

The superintendent of schools in Newark, New Jersey, says:

"I have always regarded the rule adopted by the board many years ago, that preference of appointment be given local teachers, as not in the best interests of the school system... Education has made its greatest strides where the free interchange of teachers has been encouraged by a liberal and enlightened policy on the part of the board of education. Inbreeding has been the blight of many school systems of this country."

Dickson, in the Bridgeport (Connecticut) school survey, is quoted by Lewis as having said: "There can be no greater misfortune to any school system than to have a steady inflow of home talent teachers".<sup>123</sup>

#### V. HOME TALENT TEACHERS IN MONTANA SCHOOLS

It is evident from the quotations stated in the previous section that preference given to home talent teachers, or discrimination against non-resident candidates, is inimical to the best professional interests of the schools. With this principle quite firmly established, let us examine the problem in Montana public schools.

No attempt is being made to make a detailed analysis of the problem. Instead the investigation is being limited to three major phases: (1) ascertaining the employment policies upon home talent teachers, (2) rating the comparative efficiency of home talent teachers and non-resident teachers, and (3) evaluating home talent teachers, in contrast with non-resident teachers, upon six selected items of teaching service. The criteria for rating the comparative efficiency and for evaluating the six items of teaching service are the same as those used in the preceding chapter in the study of married women teachers. Data on the first of these three problems<sup>123</sup>. Lewis, *op. cit.*, p. 166

is presented in Table XXXI.

### A. Employment Policies

**Table XXXI. The Status of Home Talent Teachers. Tabulation by Districts of Replies to the Following Questions:**

1. Does your board have a rule against the employment of home talent teachers?
2. Does your board have a rule favoring the employment of home talent teachers?
3. Have non-resident teachers been dismissed to make room for home teachers?
4. If the fact that a home talent teacher may have unemployed, aged, or disabled parents, or dependents regarded by your board as justification for hiring her?
5. Are you opposed to the employment of home talent teachers?

Questions Stated Above	Frequencies by districts											
	I		II		III		IV		Total		Percent *	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1	0	4	1	36	12	50	0	10	21	100	16.40	78.12
2	1	3	7	37	6	55	0	11	14	106	10.93	82.81
3	0	4	0	43	4	58	0	10	4	113	3.12	88.28
4	1	3	5	35	7	50	0	11	13	99	10.15	77.34
5	0	4	29	15	38	23	3	7	70	49	54.68	38.28

\*Note: Some administrators did not answer all of the questions in this table. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study. Where the sum of "Yes-No" percentages does not equal 100, the difference indicates those schools which did not respond.

This tabulation reveals that in 16 percent of the 128 schools participating school boards have rules or regulations opposing the employment of home talent teachers, while more than 78 percent have no rules on the question. Conversely, nearly 11 percent have rules that preference in appointments must be given to local applicants, whereas nearly 83 percent have not enacted such regulations. In 4 schools non-resident teachers have been dismissed to create vacancies which could be filled with home talent teachers; in more than 77 percent such has not been taken. Nearly 55 percent of the administrators responding are opposed to the employment of home talent



teachers, where 38 percent voice no opposition, and 7 percent are non-committal. These data indicate that the home talent teacher problem, like the married woman problem is highly controversial throughout the state. No well defined policies are apparent; the problem seems to be a local community matter. It is evident, however, from the data that the opinions of the administrators do not conform very well with the policies employed by their boards. Nearly 55 percent of the administrators oppose the employment of home talent teachers yet only 16 percent of the systems have adopted rules against giving preference to local teachers. Some administrators, at least, have apparently found it necessary to compromise sound professional policy with local community demands in this problem.

#### B. Quality of Service Rendered

No other study on the comparative efficiency of home talent and non-resident teachers has come to the present writer's attention, consequently the data presented in Table XXXII will not lend itself to comparison. The ratings upon home talent teachers in Montana are made by the administrators under whom these teachers serve.

Table XXII: General Rating by Administrators of the Quality of Service Rendered by Home Talent Teachers in Comparison with Non-resident Teachers.

Quality of service rendered	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent*
	I	II	III	IV		
Decidedly superior	0	1	1	0	2	2.59
Slightly better	0	1	2	0	3	3.89
Equal quality	2	24	19	7	52	67.54
Slightly inferior	0	9	7	3	19	24.69
Decidedly inferior	0	0	1	0	1	1.30
No home teachers	1	12	23	1	37	28.90
No report	1	2	11	0	14	10.93
Total reports	4	49	64	11	128	100.00

**\*Note:** Percentages based on a total of 77 schools reporting the employment of home talent teachers.

In 37 schools, no home talent teachers are employed, while in 77 schools, local teachers are found on the faculties. The administrators in 14 schools failed to report upon the problem of relative efficiency of home talent teachers. In 67.5 percent of the 77 schools, local teachers render service of equal quality, in 26 percent they render inferior service, and in less than 7 percent they render superior service when compared with non-resident teachers. Of the 26 percent who render inferior service, more than 24 percent were rated as slightly inferior and less than 2 percent were decidedly inferior. It is significant that 11 of the 64 administrators reporting from third class districts failed to rate their home talent teachers as to comparative efficiency. Several explanations offer themselves for this fact: (1) The third class district superintendents have a heavier teaching load than administrators in other classes, consequently they may not have time to rate and evaluate the quality of service of their faculties. (2) Some of the administrators may have declined to reveal the conditions existent in their school in this respect. (3) The criteria for rating teachers in the smaller third class districts may not be very well developed. The author is inclined to believe that the second suggestion explains the matter more accurately than the first and third. These superintendents, having a home talent problem in their schools, perhaps do not wish to reveal the fact that they are being compelled to put up with local teachers who are not rendering service comparable with non-resident teachers. This statement is ventured as an opinion, and is not based on any evidence.

### C. Evaluation on Specific Items of Teaching Service

Table XXXIII endeavors to analyze in more detail the comparative efficiency of home talent and non-resident teachers. Six specific items of teaching service have been evaluated by the Montana school administrators having home talent teachers on their staffs.

Table XXXIII: Comparison of Home Talent Teachers with Non-resident Teachers on Specific Items of Teaching Service.

Items of Comparison	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent*
	I	II	III	IV		
Daily preparation of school work						
Less	1	5	4	0	10	12.98
Equal	2	26	24	9	61	78.69
More	0	3	4	0	7	9.08
Assistance to extra curricular activities						
Less	0	5	5	2	12	15.56
Equal	3	27	23	7	60	77.40
More	0	2	4	0	6	7.78
Professional attitude						
Less	0	8	7	3	18	23.22
Equal	3	25	24	8	53	74.82
More	0	1	1	0	2	2.58
Professional training						
Less	0	5	6	1	12	14.56
Equal	3	29	23	8	63	80.27
More	0	1	3	0	4	5.16
Interest in pupils						
Less	0	2	4	1	7	9.08
Equal	3	31	25	8	67	84.43
More	0	3	3	0	6	7.78
Interest in community						
Less	0	4	5	2	11	13.75
Equal	2	22	17	6	47	58.75
More	1	10	9	2	22	27.50
No home talent teachers	1	12	23	1	37	23.90

\*Note: Percentages based on a total of 77 schools reporting the employment of home talent teachers.

The table reveals that in more than 78 percent of the 77 schools in which home talent teachers are employed, they give equal time to

daily preparation of their school work, in 13 percent they spend less time and in 9 percent they devote more time. In 77 percent of the schools, home talent teachers give equal assistance to extra curricular activities, in more than 15 percent they give less assistance, and in nearly 8 percent they devote more time to assisting these activities. Home talent teachers are equally professional in their attitude in nearly 75 percent of the 77 schools, less professional in 23 percent and more professional in only 2 percent. Similarly, home talent teachers have equal professional preparation in 80 percent of the schools, less training in 14 percent, and more training in 5 percent. Home talent teachers manifest an equal interest in their pupils in more than 84 percent of the schools, less interest in 9 percent and more interest in only 8 percent. Finally, in nearly 59 percent of the 77 schools home teachers take an equal interest in the community, in 14 percent they take less interest, while in 27.5 percent they manifest more interest in their own communities.

The data in this section, as well as those in the preceding discussion, indicate that on the whole home talent teachers fall slightly short of non-resident teachers in relative efficiency as well as upon the selected items of teaching service. One exception, however, needs to be pointed out: They manifest slightly more interest in their communities. We are led to the conclusion that the objections expressed against home talent teachers by the authorities in educational administration are well taken and justified by the evidence presented here.

## VI. RESULTS OF OTHER INVESTIGATIONS:

Only three other investigations of the status of home talent teachers have come to the writer's attention. These pertain to employment policies only; none contain data on the relative efficiency of home talent and non-resident teachers. These three studies are summarized here:

The National Education Association<sup>124</sup> reports in a recent survey that 57.7 percent of 1532 cities studied have policies giving preference to local candidates, and 42.3 percent give preference to non-local candidates.

2. The Office of Education<sup>125</sup> survey of teacher selection and appointment reports that local candidates are favored in 19 percent of the 908 cities studied, and non-local candidates are given preference in 16 percent of the cities. No definite rule or stated preference is found in 63 percent of the cities. These data correlates quite closely with the findings in the present study in which it was found that 11 percent of the 128 systems had rules favoring local teachers.

3. Cooke and Blackwell,<sup>126</sup> studies the situation in Texas and found that during the present depression a larger and larger percentage of schools have passed rules and regulations, both oral and written, favoring the employment of home talent teachers.

## VII. RECOMMENDED SOLUTIONS OF THE HOME TALENT PROBLEM

The problem of the home talent teacher is a difficult one. Superintendents in some of the schools in Montana are apparently

124. National Education Association Research Division, op. cit., p. 22

125. Deffenbaugh and Zeigel, op. cit., p. 28

126. Cooke and Blackwell, op. cit., p. 5-6

faced with the alternative of putting up with less efficient home talent teachers or ultimately losing their own positions. Methods of handling the situation vary with local conditions. Even in systems where the percentage of home talent teachers is too high it is seldom advisable to adopt policies of arbitrary dismissal to rid the staff of home talent teachers in order to start anew. Steps should be taken to correct the situation over a period of years, or as rapidly as new teachers are elected. The following recommendations are made to aid in solving the problem:

1. The superintendent should seal his board on the idea of setting the training standards as high as possible.
2. The superintendent should never oppose the employment of competent, qualified, and experienced local teachers.
3. The superintendent should persuade his board to pass a rule limiting the employment of home talent teachers to 50 percent of the total number of teachers.
4. The superintendent should ask the board for a rule requiring at least two years of successful experience as a prerequisite for all local positions.
5. The superintendent should, if he finds it necessary, have his board to pass a resolution forbidding any political, social, personal, or other unprofessional activity in behalf of any candidates for teaching positions.
6. The superintendent should submit his local teacher problem to the patrons and public in general; this allows the arguments on both sides of the question to be thoroughly aired.

The following training and experience standards may well be adopted:

1. At least two years of professional training for all elementary teachers.
2. At least four years of training for all junior and senior high school teachers.
3. At least two years of successful teaching experience outside the system for all home teachers.
4. A requirement that all teachers must present 12 credits of additional professional preparation every three years.

#### VIII. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

By home talent teachers is meant teachers who were educated in the local schools and whose permanent homes are in the towns in which they were educated and are now teaching.

Lewis presents ten arguments favoring and eight arguments against the employment of home talent teachers; all are based on opinion or prejudice, none is the product of investigation. The consensus of opinion of authorities in educational administration is in opposition to any regulations or employment policies which give home talent teachers preference over non-resident teachers. The authorities point out the dangers of inbreeding and recommend that an upper limit be set upon the number of home talent teachers which can be employed; they generally agree that the number should not exceed 50 percent.

In 16 percent of the Montana schools reporting in this survey there are regulations opposing the employment of home talent teachers, whereas in 11 percent regulations exist favoring their employment.

Nearly 55 percent of the Montana administrators reporting oppose the employment of home talent, while 38 percent voice no opposition. Home talent teachers are employed in 77 of the 123 schools reporting, and are not employed in 37 schools. Fourteen schools did not report on the employment of home talent teachers, 11 of which were third class district schools.

In 67.5 percent of the schools, home talent teachers rendered service of equal quality, in 26 percent they render inferior service, and in 7 percent they render superior service. This indicates a balance in favor of non-resident teachers in the ratings of administrators upon comparative efficiency. In five of the six items of specific teaching service, namely daily preparation of school work, assistance to extra curricular activities, professional attitude, professional preparation, and interest in pupils, home talent teachers were slightly deficient when compared with non-resident teachers. The most glowing deficiency occurred in professional attitude; only 2.6 were more professional, while 23 percent were less professional than non-resident teachers. In the sixth item, interest in the community, a small balance exists in favor of home talent teachers.

Three other studies of the employment policies indicated that preference is being shown to home talent teachers in a constantly increasing percentage of cases. The data in the present study warrants the conclusion that policies discriminating against non-resident teachers are not justified. Solutions of the problem entail a long range program of including the following factors: (1) Increasing professional qualifications, (2) establishing outside



teaching experience requirements, (3) setting a limit on the number of home talent teachers that may be employed, (4) passing a resolution prohibiting "pull" to be employed in behalf of any candidates, and (5) requiring constant professional growth while in service.

## CHAPTER VIII

## TEACHER-COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

I. THE TEACHER'S RELATION TO THE COMMUNITY

The teacher's relationships with the community are as varied as the interpretations of the term community itself. In the local community, to which this discussion will be confined, certain quite definite characteristics can be found in the relationships which exist between teacher and community. First, all communities are loud in proclaiming their interest in education and their belief in democracy of educational opportunity. "This liberal ideal, coupled with local pride in the school is the foundation upon which almost unlimited school improvement campaigns have been made successful,"<sup>127</sup> Second, all communities demand of their teachers the commonly accepted social standards; they expect teachers to dress well without affecting extremes in fashion; to avoid careless and "risque" behavior; and to lead exemplary lives which the children they teach may emulate. Third, all communities concede to their teachers a large measure of academic freedom within reasonable limits, which most teachers never find in the least unpleasantly restrictive. For example, there is freedom to vote for any political candidate, but not to lead a campaign in the classroom or community for or against any candidate of party. Fourth, all communities are similar in making large and varied demands upon the teacher's out-of-school time. The wise teacher studies the diverse interests involved and meets the issue with a flexible schedule for her out-of-school time which leaves time for personal recreation and self-improvement.

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127. Davis, S. E., The Teacher's Relationships, MacMillan, N.Y., p.52.

Fifth, all communities like to feel that their teachers are cordially identified with it and genuinely interested in what is going on. In small communities the fact that a teacher keeps money in an out-of-town bank, holds a non-resident church membership, takes the first train home on Friday afternoon and returns only in time for school on Monday morning soon engenders criticism and disapproval.

## II. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN COMMUNITIES

Without minimizing the community resemblances that have been noted, six points of difference will be described.

"All American communities would seem to be more or less peculiar; most of them more. The smaller the place, the more likely it is to be set in its ways; but each local group, represents some distinctive customs and habits to which the new teacher must adjust herself, if she expects to succeed. . . . The new teacher will always find it difficult for six months, or more to keep off the spiritual corns of the community." 128

First, communities differ in their dominant attitudes toward the culture for which the school stands. In the words of Davis, "Headline pride in school buildings, and even a willingness to vote high tax levies are no sure guarantee that scholarship is appreciated". 129 Second, long standing custom differentiates communities in relation to their school practices and expectations.

"In one system, as a matter of course all teachers have grown up in the community and outsiders are seldom even considered. In some places there is a strong objection to writing 'Mrs.' before the name of any member of the teaching staff. In one city average tenure may be ten or fifteen years; in the next town, it may be a matter of remark if any teacher remains five years." 130

Third, in small cities and towns the school often maintains a dominating position. The teachers appear to be in the public eye,

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128. Graves, Frank P. "Yearbook", Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, Washington, D. C. 1929, p. 123.

129. Davis, op. cit., p. 53.

130. Ibid., p. 56.

and the school becomes the true community center.

In the fourth place, some small communities try to impose peculiar social requirements upon teachers as a foil to the usual freedom accorded to them. The right kind of teachers do not need regulations concerning the style of wearing the hair, the length of skirt, use of cosmetics, attendance at church services, and the use of tobacco or intoxicating liquor. "Teachers whose conduct needs such regulations are children; only unwise selection makes them members of the teaching staff, and in spite of the regulations imposed, they remain children still." 131

It is the inappropriate actions of some teachers that occasion all such rules. Sometimes foolish regulations are carried through by the initial fervor of a newly elected board member who feels responsible for doing something. There is some variation as to what different communities consider inappropriate but there are a few constants which some teachers forget, ever with the same result. As an example, the teacher who permits marked social attention from or pays the same to, a high school pupil of the opposite sex is inviting savage criticism which neither personal or official defenders can meet.

Fifth, the teacher needs to respect community social modes with their interesting minor diversities. If there are peculiar notions about dancing or other amusements, the teacher who laments the existence of such restrictions should look over the field and accept a position where they are not present. Sixth, though not stipulated in any contract, it is a teacher's business to please

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131. Davis, op. cit., p. 57.

the community. Success does not demand that the teacher shall sanction all the standards which the community sets for itself but the teacher does well to think through the entire situation before too lightly flaunting community expectations.

### III. SUGGESTIONS FOR SUCCESSFUL TEACHER-COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

Avent recommends a course of action for a teacher to pursue in his community relationships:

"The excellent teacher respects local sentiment . . . . He supports and cooperates with civic improvement projects and religious education programs . . . . He takes part in community affairs. He lives in the community in which he works. He shows his interest in the community life. He establishes friendly ties. He cooperates with community educational agencies. He uses the neighborhood as a source of problems. . . . He cultivates ability to make public addresses in the community. He attends church and Sunday school as a participant. He holds a community improvement day. He helps in health movements. He early becomes familiar with the community. He soon becomes known and respected there. He attends, or belongs to, a civic or service club. His participation in local social life is characterized by prudence and wisdom. He always considers the best interests of the community and the school. . . . In short, he is a citizen of the community." 132

The principles and standards laid down by Avent in the foregoing paragraph indicate the ultimate in the duties and activities in which teachers may participate in their community relationships. The present writer does not pretend that these standards are to be regarded as the minimum essentials of community activity and conduct. They may be regarded as desirable guideposts to enable a teacher to steer a successful course through the difficult problems of teacher-community relationships. The writer has always regarded that the teacher's first responsibility lies in the classroom with the pupils taught. Any other activities engaged in must be supplementary to school tasks. A teacher should build his success upon

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132. Avent, Joseph E., The Excellent Teacher, Joseph E. Avent, Publisher, Knoxville, Tennessee, 1931, pp. 33-37.

teaching, not upon a wide range of community activities regardless of how worthy the cause.

#### IV. TEACHER-COMMUNITY RELATIONS IN MONTANA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

**Table XXXIV: Relationship of Teachers to their Communities.**  
Tabulation by Districts of Replies to the Following Questions:

1. Do you require teachers to assist with community activities?
2. Do you require teachers to visit the homes of patrons?
3. Does the board have rules regarding teachers' social conduct and activities out of school hours?
4. Do you believe that teachers should be expected to lead model or exemplary lives in the community?
5. Does your community expect teachers to lead model or exemplary lives?
6. Does your community expect teachers to give their time and talent in assisting social, civic, and religious activities?
7. Does your community expect teachers to contribute money to social, civic, and religious endeavors?
8. Do non-resident teachers register as voters in your county?

Questions stated above	Frequencies by districts								Total		Percent*	
	I		II		III		IV					
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1	0	4	14	55	31	32	2	7	47	73	36.71	60.93
2	1	3	8	39	15	43	3	7	27	97	21.09	75.78
3	1	3	4	43	8	54	2	9	15	109	11.71	85.15
4	3	1	38	8	49	12	10	1	100	22	78.12	17.18
5	3	0	39	7	47	14	9	2	98	23	76.56	17.96
6	1	3	37	10	46	14	5	4	89	31	69.53	24.21
7	3	1	39	6	50	12	6	2	98	21	78.56	16.40
8	4	0	36	8	47	12	10	1	97	21	75.58	16.40

\* Note: Some administrators did not answer all of the questions in this table. Percentages, however, are based on a total of 128 schools participating in this study. Where the sum of "Yes-No" percentages does not equal 100, the difference indicates those schools which did not respond.

In more than 36 percent of the 128 schools cooperating teachers are required to assist with community activities whereas in nearly 61 percent this requirement is not made. In 21 percent of the schools, administrators require teachers to visit the homes of their patrons, while in nearly 78 percent teachers may use their own discretion in this matter. In nearly 12 percent of the schools, attempt is made to govern the social conduct and behavior of teach-

ers by means of board rules and regulations; whereas, in 85 percent, the conduct of teachers is not inhibited by board mandate. In 76 percent of the schools teachers are expected to lead exemplary lives in the community; while in 18 percent, no requirement of this nature exists. Similarly, administrators expect their teachers to lead exemplary lives in 78 percent of the schools reporting. The teachers are expected to give their time and talent to the assistance of civic, social and religious community activities in nearly 70 percent of the schools; in 24 percent such assistance is accepted but not expected. Likewise, teachers are expected to contribute money to civic, social and religious endeavors in more than 76 percent of the schools; in 16 percent only may they exercise their own volition in this matter. In 75 percent of the schools, non-resident teachers register as voters in their county in which they are teaching.

The foregoing data indicate that the great majority of the teachers in Montana schools are expected to participate actively in the affairs of their communities. They are expected to lead exemplary lives both by their administrators and their communities in more than three-fourths of the schools reporting. Teachers are also expected to assist civic, social and religious endeavors both with financial aid and time and talent in more than two-thirds of the schools. Table XXXV analyzes the nature of this assistance.

**Table XXXV: Activities which Communities Expect Teachers to Assist with Financial Aid(F) or Time and Talent(T) or Both.**

Activities which teachers are ex- pected to assist	Frequencies by districts								Total		Percent	
	I		II		III		IV					
	F	T	F	T	F	T	F	T	F	T	F	T
Church attendance	1	1	24	20	29	35	2	2	58	58	43.75	45.31
Ladies Aid Soc.	1	1	9	7	22	20	1	0	33	28	25.78	21.87
Sunday school tch.	0	1	7	15	13	28	1	1	21	45	16.40	35.15
Church choirs	0	1	6	20	7	29	0	2	13	32	10.15	40.62
Boy scouts	0	0	7	24	7	23	2	3	16	50	12.50	39.06
Girl scouts	0	0	7	19	4	18	2	3	13	40	10.15	31.25
Fraternal orders	1	1	4	6	9	14	0	0	14	21	10.93	16.40
Commercial clubs	0	0	10	17	14	20	2	2	26	39	20.31	30.48
Welfare or relief	2	1	16	11	21	13	4	2	43	27	33.59	21.09
Social clubs	1	1	8	8	12	22	0	0	21	31	16.40	24.21
Community clubs	0	0	8	9	13	24	0	3	21	36	16.40	28.12
P.-T. Association	0	3	8	13	12	18	0	2	20	36	15.62	28.12
Recreational activities	1	1	5	7	11	23	0	2	17	33	13.28	25.78
Local benefit programs	1	1	17	17	26	36	3	2	47	56	34.71	43.75
Miscellaneous	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	1.56	.78

In about 45 percent of the 128 schools studied teachers are expected to give both financial aid and time or talent to religious services. In nearly 26 percent they are expected to help in the financial support of ladies' aid societies. Teachers are expected to assist in Sunday school work, with financial aid in 16 percent of the schools, and with time and talent in 35 percent. This assistance is generally given in the capacity of Sunday school teacher or superintendent. Likewise, teachers are expected to lend their talent to church choirs in 40 percent of the schools. Teachers are expected to assist with Boy Scout activities in 39 percent of the schools, Girl Scout or Campfire Girls activities in 31 percent. This assistance is usually given as scout troop leaders or assistant leaders. In 20 percent of the schools, teachers were expected to give financial aid to civic and commercial clubs and in 30 percent they are expected to lend their time and talent to these organizations. Financial aid to welfare and relief activities is expected



of teachers in one-third of the schools; time to relief activities is required in 21 percent. Social clubs also require time and talent in 24 percent of the schools, financial aid in 16 percent. Similarly, community clubs make demands upon teachers' time and talent in 28 percent of the schools. Teachers are expected to help support Parent-Teacher Associations in 15.6 percent of the schools, and devote their time to these organizations in 23 percent. Finally, local benefit programs require financial aid of teachers in more than 36 percent of the schools, and time and talent in nearly 44 percent.

These data present the positive side of the picture of teacher-community relationships. Table XXXVI portrays the negative side, or those activities which teachers are expected by their communities to refrain from engaging in or assisting financially.

**Table XXXVI: Activities which Communities Expect Teachers to Refrain from Engaging in or Patronizing.**

Activities not favored	Frequencies by districts				Total	Percent
	I	II	III	IV		
Public dances	3	1	0	0	4	3.12
Public card parties	1	0	0	0	1	.78
Pool halls	3	30	38	10	81	63.28
Beer parlors	3	39	50	11	103	80.46
Liquor stores	3	38	48	10	99	77.34
Gambling rooms	3	42	52	11	108	84.37
Night clubs	2	28	34	7	71	55.46
Fraternal orders	0	0	1	0	1	.78
Midweek dances	1	8	20	1	30	23.43
Midweek dates	1	1	3	1	6	4.68
Midweek theatre attendance	0	0	0	1	1	.78
Midweek parties	1	0	2	1	4	3.12
Using tobacco	2	16	19	4	41	32.03
Company with high school students	2	34	56	11	103	80.46
Company with socially un- desirables	3	32	48	10	93	72.65

In four of the 128 schools participating teachers are expected to stay away from public dances; it is noteworthy that three of these four are first class district schools. Teachers are judged critically for patronizing pool halls in 63 percent of the 128 schools. Moreover, patronizing beer parlors is condemned in 80 percent, and liquor stores in 77 percent. No doubt these percentages would be higher if beer parlors and liquor stores were found in every community studied. Frequenting gambling rooms is regarded with disfavor in 84 percent of the schools, and night clubs in 55 percent. Here again it is possible that the percentage would be higher if these degrading recreational activities were to be found in every school community in Montana. Midweek dances are disapproved in 23 percent of the schools; midweek social engagements or "dates" in nearly 5 percent, and midweek house parties in 3 percent. Using tobacco is regarded with disfavor in 32 percent of the schools. However, many administrators qualified their response to the item by such statements as "This applies to women only" or "Women prohibited; men discouraged" or similar notations. Apparently a double standard exists in some schools on the question of using tobacco. Teachers are condemned for or restricted from keeping company with high school students in 80 percent of the schools, likewise the same reaction applies to keeping company with socially undesirables in 72 percent of the 128 schools.

A number of superintendents made worthwhile comments on the items of questionable social behavior suggested in the above table. Several of these comments will be quoted here:

"1. In general we try to employ teachers who are capable of using the internal control of subjective authority rather than those who are so childish as to require the external control of objective authority. In return we expect circumspection, discretion and respect for public opinion."

2. "Our specific regulations are few; our standards for character activities . . . are high."

3. "Our teachers are hired to teach. Their conduct out of the school room will affect one way or another their standing in the community. If this conduct is such as to give the teacher a bad reputation, the teacher need not expect to be retained."

4. "I believe that teachers should live according to the ethics of the profession."

5. "There are no specific . . . rules relative to teacher-community relationships such as those indicated, but the community expects sane, balanced, discreet conduct. . . . Very rarely does a teacher fail to reveal proper appreciation of community standards in the above respects."

6. "We have very few restraints on teachers. They may dance, smoke, and do as they please. The more studious teachers seem to be, the less popular. This town is opposite to most others in this respect."

The opinions and positions indicated in these quotations, with the exception of the last one, are in line with the present writer's views. Teachers may properly be expected to refrain from participation in questionable recreational activities, particularly in the use of liquor, in the frequenting of pool halls, beer parlors, and night clubs, and in close personal association with socially undesirables or high school students of the opposite sex. If teachers are unable or unwilling to conduct themselves with decorum and respectability they should seek their careers in other fields of employment.

#### V. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS:

All communities are alike in professing ideals in advance of practice, in granting to teachers freedom within wide limits, in demanding much from teachers, and in expecting teachers to be socially as well as professionally identified with the community.

Communities differ in their expectations of their schools and teachers. Unreasonable restrictions and excessive demands upon the teacher's time call for exercise of shrewd discrimination. Teachers must constantly remember that, in the last analysis, their success depends upon how well they please their communities.

Avent suggests a great variety of very definite ways in which teachers may build up successful relationships with their communities. He also points out definitely certain things to avoid and activities from which to abstain. The recommendations quoted from Avent are not to be regarded as a set of minimum essentials for teachers to follow in their community relations. Rather, these recommendations suggest a great variety of ways in which teachers may build up successful relationships with their communities. Teachers should refrain from entering into controversial community troubles, from active partisan politics, and from expressing or indicating religious prejudice.

Teachers in Montana are expected, both by their superintendents and their communities to lead exemplary lives in more than three-fourths of the schools reporting. They are expected to give both financial aid and time and talent to civic, social and religious community endeavors in more than 70 percent of the Montana schools responding to this study.

Teachers give both financial aid and time and talent to a wide variety of community activities. The leading activities, in the order of the frequency of assistance received from teachers, are as follows: church attendance, local benefit programs, welfare and relief activities, Sunday school teaching, Boy Scout work, church

choirs and programs and commercial clubs.

The following activities are regarded with disfavor or definitely prohibited by the administrators reporting. The items are stated in the order of their frequency of mention: Frequenting gambling rooms or beer parlors, keeping company with high school students, patronizing liquor stores, keeping company with socially undesirables, frequenting pool halls, and night clubs.

On the whole the majority of communities in Montana set up no unreasonable standards for teacher participation in or assistance to community affairs; neither do they lay down any unjustifiable restrictions upon teacher conduct. Teachers are expected to conduct themselves in a professional manner, and to become helpful members of the communities which employ them. Any deviation from this general summary upon conditions is the exception rather than the rule in the schools of Montana.

## CHAPTER IX: GENERAL SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The major objectives of this study were: (1) To ascertain sound principles for the administration of the selected problems of teacher personnel, and (2) to investigate the status of current practice upon these problems in the public schools of Montana. Its purpose was to evaluate the prevalent practices in the light of the principles laid down by authorities in school and personnel administration. The authorities relied upon to establish sound principles included: Almack, Cubberley, Cooke, Lang, Englehardt, Lewis, Reeder, Deffenbaugh, Zeigel, and others. Whenever other studies in the field of teacher personnel permitted of contrast, such comparisons have been made and indicated throughout this study.

The information contained herein was derived principally from two sources: (1) Quotations from the above mentioned authorities in school and teacher personnel administration and (2) the questionnaire answered and returned by the 128 Montana school administrators who cooperated with the author. These administrators included 4 superintendents of first class districts, 49 superintendents of second class districts, 64 superintendents or principals of third class districts, and 11 principals of county high schools. The four classes of districts were given numbers I, II, III, and IV corresponding respectively to first, second, and third class districts and county high schools. The data secured from the questionnaire have been accurately presented in tabulations by districts; totals have been taken, and percentages have been computed to indicate trends in nearly every case when data was so presented. An analysis

sis of the data has been made and included immediately following each statistical table. It is hoped, therefore, that the presentation has been thorough.

#### A. General Summary

The most important findings in the preceding chapters are summarized here:

The minimum standard of training in Montana for elementary teachers is two years beyond high school graduation. For high school teachers, the standard is graduation from a four year college or university. Not a single school system reported requirements less than these.

Approximately 50 percent of the administrators state that elementary teachers, 45 percent state that junior high school teachers, and 35 percent state that senior high school teachers must have prior teaching experience for newly appointed positions. On the other hand, 46 percent of the schools will employ inexperienced elementary teachers, and 54 percent will employ senior high school teachers without experience.

School administrators and their boards cooperate in establishing the training and experience requirements in 50 percent of the schools; in 32 percent of the schools, boards delegate this power to their superintendents.

In Montana 37.5 percent of the administrators exercise full control over the selection of teachers; 55 percent cooperate with their boards in selection and nomination. In 37 percent of the systems, superintendents nominate only one candidate for each vacancy while in 54 percent, they nominate several and let the board make the final selection. The data also indicate that in

31 percent of the systems, board members nominate candidates of their own choice, in violation of sound principles of teacher selection.

Nearly 90 percent of the Montana school administrators employ the personal interview in teacher selection; 87.5 percent employ the Placement Bureau of the Montana Education Association in locating applicants; and 66 percent utilize the services of commercial teachers agencies. Printed applications blanks are used to secure information about candidates in only 40 percent of the schools. In 85 percent of the Montana schools, applicants are interviewed by the superintendent; and in 33 percent, by all members of the board.

The leading standards employed by Montana administrators in teacher selection are: Professional preparation, moral character, disciplinary ability, health, academic preparation, extra curricular qualifications, confidential recommendations, and teaching success.

Teachers are annually reelected in 96 percent of the schools reporting; only 3 schools have abandoned this practice. They are required to apply annually for reelection in 13 percent of the school systems. Annual reelection occurs in April 80 percent of the schools.

In 75 percent of the schools the superintendent is vested with the sole power to recommend the reelection of teachers; in 58 percent he exercises the sole power to recommend their dismissal. Boards of trustees retain the sole power of reelection in 14 percent of the schools, and the sole power of dismissal in 5 percent.



Marriage clauses are the commonest restrictive clauses found in the teachers' contracts. Other clauses cover such items as sick leave, wilful neglect of duty, methods of salary payment, closing of school, certification, conformity to board rules.

The leading cause of teacher failure is weak discipline. Other causes are; incompetence, poor instruction, lack of cooperation, and disloyalty.

The most flagrant violation of sound school administration in Montana occurs in the annual reelection of teachers and in retention of board control over teacher dismissal.

Little progress upon the four items of professional growth which were studied has been made in Montana. Only 4 schools grant salary increases for attending summer school, taking professional courses during the term, or educative travel.

Nearly all the school boards in Montana have reduced teachers' salaries during the present depression. More than 52 percent made uniform percentage reductions, 25 percent made fixed sum reductions, and 15 percent considered each teacher's salary separately.

Salary discriminations in favor of men teachers are prevalent in 33 percent of the schools. Married men, because of their marital status, receive higher salaries for equal duties in 10 percent of the schools. The athletic coaching position leads all others in which salary distinctions in favor of men are made.

In 59 percent of the schools teachers are granted some time with full pay for sick leave. The time varies from 2 to 20 days. Full salary is paid for 10 days or less in 32 percent of the schools reporting. The most common practice in the sick leave problem, pursued in 44 percent of the systems reporting, is: The teacher

receives full salary during absence and pays the substitute herself.

Less than 40 percent of the schools in Montana employ salary schedules. A number of systems reported that schedules in operation prior to 1930 had to be abandoned due to the depression ~~and the depression~~ and the resultant decline in school revenues.

The lowest entrance salary reported in schedules received is \$600; the highest maximum salary is \$2400. The median entrance salary for elementary teachers was found to be \$900; for junior high school teachers, \$990; and for senior high school teachers \$1125. The median maximum salaries for these three levels are respectively \$1200, \$1250, and \$1600.

A single salary schedule gives equal pay for equal qualifications and equal service. Its employment in remunerating teachers conflicts with the principle that merit, efficiency, and superior service or ability should be especially rewarded in the pay envelope.

The prejudice against married women teachers may be summarized under three headings: (1) The public bounty idea that tax paid jobs belong to needy citizens, (2) the married woman belongs in the home, and (3) the danger of inbreeding.

The legal status of the married woman teacher has been quite clearly defined by court decisions: (1) School boards have power to set up restrictions against married women teachers, (2) a board rule to dismiss a married woman may be legally enforced, (3) marriage in itself, is not grounds for discharge, (4) when statutes specify causes for which a teacher may be dismissed, a board rule adding

marriage as an additional cause is not valid, and (5) misrepresentation of marital status to secure employment constitutes fraud.

In 70 percent of the 128 Montana schools studied, boards have rules against the employment of married women; in 20 percent women who marry must resign at once; and in 52 percent, they are dismissed at the end of the term.

More than 39 percent of the Montana administrators oppose the employment of married women, 51 percent express no opposition, and 10 percent are non-committal. In exactly 50 percent of the schools, 64 out of the 128 reporting, no married women are employed at present.

Nearly 85 percent of the married women teachers of Montana were rated equal or superior to unmarried women in quality of service rendered; and 12.5 percent were rated inferior.

Married women compared favorably with unmarried women teachers in six specific items of teaching service. They excelled unmarried women teachers in daily preparation of school work, interest in their pupils, and interest in the community. They were excelled by unmarried women teachers only in assistance given to extra curricular activities.

Investigation of the status and employment policies regarding married women reveal a decided trend against their employment since 1930. This trend can readily be explained by the public bounty theory that tax-paid jobs should be given to needy unmarried women teachers.

The present policies against the employment of married women must find their basis in economic reasons or prejudice. No data,

based on professional investigation, exist to indicate that married women are less efficient as teachers.

Justification for this prejudice exists in the fact that, in the several studies of comparative efficiency, married women have not been found to be decidedly superior to unmarried women teachers. Insofar as they render only comparably equal service, the movement to distribute teaching positions among unmarried women has both economic and professional validity.

Home talent teachers are employed in 60 percent of the Montana schools included in this study; they are not employed in 29 percent. In 18 percent of the schools, boards have adopted policies opposed to their employment; whereas, in 11 percent, regulations favoring their employment have been enacted. Nearly 55 percent of the administrators oppose the employment of home talent teachers, while 38 percent express no opposition.

In 67.5 percent of the schools reporting home talent teachers render comparable equal service; in 26 percent, they render inferior service; and in only 7 percent they render superior service.

In five of the six items of teaching service, namely, daily preparation, assistance to extra-curricular activities, professional preparation, professional attitude, and interest in pupils, home talent teachers were found to be inferior. The most glaring deficiency occurred in their professional attitude.

The data available warrant the conclusion that employment policies which favor home talent teachers are not professionally justifiable. Such policies find their basis in prejudice or provincialism.

Teachers must constantly remember that, in the last analysis, their success depends upon how well they please their communities. Teachers may justifiably be expected to become active, participating members of the communities in which they teach.

Teachers in Montana are expected, both by their communities and by their administrators, to lead exemplary lives in more than 75 percent of the schools studied. They are expected to give financial as well as time and talent to social, civic, and religious endeavors in more than 70 percent of the communities. In response to these expectations they give such aid to a wide variety of community activities, including the following: Church services, local benefit programs, welfare and relief activities, Sunday school teaching, boy scout work and church choirs and programs.

Teachers are either prohibited or discouraged from patronizing gambling rooms, night clubs, beer parlors, liquor stores, and pool halls. They are also expected to refrain from keeping company with socially undesirables or high school students of the opposite sex. One school has a restrictive item in its teachers' contracts governing the latter item.

On the whole, the communities or school administrators of Montana set up no unreasonable standards for teacher assistance to community affairs. Neither are teachers hamstrung by any absurd restrictions upon their conduct. The data indicate, however, that teachers are expected to become cooperative members of the communities which employ them.

The widest deviation from sound professional policy upon the several problems of teachers personnel are found in the smaller

third class districts. The least deviation occurs in the first class districts and county high schools. This is true particularly in the following: Practices in teacher employment, reelection, and dismissal; policies toward home talent teachers; and in a number of minor personnel problems such as salary scheduling, sick leave and rewards for professional growth.

The deviations indicated in the preceding paragraph are due largely to the control exercised by the local school boards, composed of members having exaggerated ideas of the importance of their offices. Board members appear unwilling to vest in their chosen administrator the responsibility for handling the several problems of teacher personnel, or anxious to usurp from him many of the functions which normally attach to his position.

#### B. Recommendations

An analysis of the deficiencies in personnel administration resolves itself into three major propositions: (1) Lack of adequate finances to carry out a progressive program for the improvement of the teaching personnel, (2) domination of administrators functions in personnel administration by local boards of trustees, and (3) persistence of unprofessional policies and attitudes toward teachers within the smaller communities. The first proposition lies outside the scope of the present study; suffice it to say that if adequate funds could be secured to carry out a progressive educational program many problems of teacher personnel would solve themselves. To cope with the other two propositions the following recommendations are advanced:

1. The number of school districts in Montana should be reduced

by legislative enactment to about 50 or 60. Each district should be controlled by an elective board of five members. The present local school districts and boards should be abolished by law.

2. The district or county board should elect a superintendent of schools and delegate to him full administrative control over the teaching personnel in the entire district.

3. The superintendent of schools should locate, investigate, and nominate all the teachers for election. The board should approve or disapprove the superintendent's nominations, but in the event of disapproval, should have no power of substituting candidates of its own selection.

4. All candidates for teaching positions should send their applications to, and promote their candidacies with superintendent of schools, not to or with the district board of education. Members should refer all personal applicants to the superintendent; he alone should interview them and evaluate their fitness.

5. Indefinite tenure for teachers should replace the present annual reelection plan. After a probationary period of three years in the same school system, indefinite tenure should be granted to those teachers who give evidence of satisfactory preliminary training, professional growth, and successful experience.

6. The right to dismiss a teacher should be in the hands of the district board of education, but the superintendent should be the sole judge of the sufficiency of the reasons for dismissal.

7. Teachers should be granted ten days of sick leave annually with full pay. Under no conditions should teachers, when absent on the basis of a physicians's order, be required to forfeit their

full salary during illness of less than ten day's duration.

8. Salaries should be paid by means of a salary schedule. There should be enough flexibility in the schedule to provide extra pay for teachers with extra abilities, duties, and qualifications. Merit should be rewarded, but objective measures for measuring merit should be devised.

9. Qualifications being equal, preference in employment should be given to unmarried women teachers if married women have other means of support. Such action is justifiable both economically and professionally during the present period of unemployment.

10. Individual merit, and merit only, should determine the status of the home talent teacher. The schools should not be used for local charitable, political, social, or religious purposes. Rules or policies which require that preference in employment be given to local candidates should be abolished.

11. A long range program, employing the following steps, is recommended to solve the home talent teacher problem: (1) Increase professional qualifications of all teachers, (2) establish outside teaching experience requirements, (3) set a limit on the number of home talent teachers that may be employed, (4) prohibit "pull" to be employed in behalf of any candidate, (5) require constant professional growth in service, and (6) vest full and final authority for teacher selection in the superintendent.

12. Teachers should be permitted to exercise their own volition in the matter of giving assistance to community activities. They should become cooperative citizens of the communities in which they teach but no group, organization, or faction has a right to expect



a teacher to lend aid or talent to local civic, social, or religious activities.

### C. Conclusion

Upon completion of the present study the writer ventures the opinion that a systematic course in the administration of teacher personnel would materially assist beginning superintendents in solving the problems of selection, placement, promotion and remuneration of teachers, and thereby improve the schools under their supervision. In fact, upon successful management of the teaching personnel depends to a large extent the happiness and efficiency of teachers.

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Dear Fellow-worker:

Your cooperation in filling out the following questionnaire is earnestly solicited. The material will be incorporated into my study of "Problems of Teacher Personnel in Montana Public Schools." To my knowledge, no similar study has been made in the state, hence data which you furnish will be highly valuable and greatly appreciated. The questionnaire has been arranged to facilitate your answering it, and should require less than 20 minutes of your time.

I shall greatly appreciate receiving your answers before March 30. You may be assured that they will be held in strict confidence. If you wish to receive a summary of my findings, check on the line at the left. Thank you.

Fraternally yours,

\_\_\_\_\_ Check here.

R. E. Sonneman

\* \* \* \* \*

### PROBLEMS OF TEACHER PERSONNEL IN MONTANA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

**General Directions:** In answering questions with "yes" - "no" responses, please underscore yes or no. In answering check-list items, please employ the extra lines provided to write in, if necessary, items which apply to your school system and are not included in the check-lists.

#### I. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING AND QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

1. Check below the number of years of training beyond high school graduation required of newly appointed teachers in your school system. If an 8-4 type of school, check the first and third columns only.

<u>Elementary teachers</u>	<u>Junior high school teachers</u>	<u>Senior high school teachers</u>
_____ 1 year	_____ 1 year	_____ 1 year
_____ 2 years	_____ 2 years	_____ 2 years
_____ 3 years	_____ 3 years	_____ 3 years
_____ 4 years	_____ 4 years	_____ 4 years
_____ 5 years	_____ 5 years	_____ 5 years

2. Check below the number of years of prior teaching experience required of newly appointed teachers in your school system. If an 8-4 type of school, check the first and third columns only.

<u>Elementary teachers</u>	<u>Junior high school teachers</u>	<u>Senior high school teachers</u>
_____ none	_____ none	_____ none
_____ 1 year	_____ 1 year	_____ 1 year
_____ 2 years	_____ 2 years	_____ 2 years
_____ 3 years	_____ 3 years	_____ 3 years
_____ 4 years	_____ 4 years	_____ 4 years
_____ 5 years or more	_____ 5 years or more	_____ 5 years or more

3. Who sets the standards of training and experience indicated above? Check one.

_____ Superintendent of Schools	_____ Committee of board
_____ Principal of high school	_____ Supt. and Board in cooperation
_____ Supt. and Prin. in cooperation	_____
_____ Board of trustees	_____

## TEACHERS

1. Who selects the candidates to whom contracts will be offered? Check correct item.
- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Superintendent of Schools      | <input type="checkbox"/> Committee of board             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Principal of high school       | <input type="checkbox"/> Supt. and board in cooperation |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Supt. and Prin. in cooperation | <input type="checkbox"/> _____                          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Board of trustees              | <input type="checkbox"/> _____                          |
2. Do you investigate candidates independently of the board? . . . . . Yes No
3. Do you recommend one candidate only for election to each vacancy? . . . . . Yes No
4. Do you recommend several candidates and let the board select from these? . . . . . Yes No
5. Do members of the board advance candidates of their own? . . . . . Yes No
6. Does the board act only upon the candidates whom you recommend? . . . . . Yes No
7. What methods do you employ in selecting candidates? Check only those you use.
- |   |  |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> M. E. A. Placement Bureau      | <input type="checkbox"/> Personal interview by applicant         |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Normal school placement bureau | <input type="checkbox"/> Letters from friends of applicant       |
| <input type="checkbox"/> College or University bureau   | <input type="checkbox"/> Observing teachers in other schools     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Commercial teachers agencies   | <input type="checkbox"/> Visiting higher institutions to observe |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Teachers written application   | <input type="checkbox"/> practice teachers                       |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Printed application blank      | <input type="checkbox"/> _____                                   |
8. If a personal application is suggested or required, whom does the applicant interview? Check as many as apply.
- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Superintendent of schools                   | <input type="checkbox"/> Chairman of board                    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Principal of high school                    | <input type="checkbox"/> Board committee on teacher selection |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Principal of school where teacher is needed | <input type="checkbox"/> All members of the board             |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Supervisor of teachers                      | <input type="checkbox"/> Teachers' committee of P. T. A.      |
|  | <input type="checkbox"/> _____                                |
9. What standards do you employ in selecting candidates? Check only those you use.
- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Academic preparation            | <input type="checkbox"/> Disciplinary ability |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Professional preparation        | <input type="checkbox"/> Teaching success     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Specialized preparation         | <input type="checkbox"/> Cooperation          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Certification                   | <input type="checkbox"/> Loyalty to school    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Age                             | <input type="checkbox"/> Loyalty to superiors |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Health                          | <input type="checkbox"/> General ability      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Moral character                 | <input type="checkbox"/> Scholarship          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Religious Preference            | <input type="checkbox"/> Personality          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Extra curricular qualifications | <input type="checkbox"/> Adaptability         |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Tenure in previous positions    | <input type="checkbox"/> Community interest   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Confidential recommendations    | <input type="checkbox"/> Photograph           |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Open letters of recommendation  | <input type="checkbox"/> Need (dependents)    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Physical fitness                | <input type="checkbox"/> _____                |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Instructional ability           | <input type="checkbox"/> _____                |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Personal qualities              | <input type="checkbox"/> _____                |
- Note: If you use printed application and reference blanks, kindly enclose blank copies of each. Thank you.

## III. RE-ELECTION, TENURE, AND DISMISSAL OF TEACHERS

1. Does the board always accept your recommendations for reelection of teachers? Yes No
2. Does the board always accept your recommendations for dismissal of teachers? Yes No
3. Are incumbent teachers elected each year in board meeting? . . . . . Yes No
4. Are incumbent teachers required to apply for reelection? . . . . . Yes No

5. Who recommends incumbent teachers for re-election? For dismissal? Check the correct item in each column.

Re-election

☐ Superintendent of schools  
☐ Principal of high school  
☐ Supt. and prin. in cooperation  
☐ Board of trustees  
☐ Committee of board  
☐ Supt. and board in cooperation

Dismissal

☐ Superintendent of schools  
☐ Principal of high school  
☐ Supt. and prin. in cooperation  
☐ Board of trustees  
☐ Committee of board  
☐ Supt. and board in cooperation

6. Does the board invoke the Montana tenure law (requiring notification before May 1 of the third year) to dismiss teachers? . . . . . Yes No
7. Has the board ever acted upon teacher reelection without your sanction? . . . . . Yes No
8. Do non-school or outside influences affect the reelection of teachers? . . . . . Yes No
9. Do teachers' contracts contain clauses giving the board power to dismiss a teacher during term? . . . . . Yes No
10. If question 9 is answered "Yes" what types of clauses are employed?
- |   |  |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Marriage during term | <input type="checkbox"/> Corporal punishment |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Immorality           | <input type="checkbox"/> Closing of school   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Incompetence         | <input type="checkbox"/> _____               |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Intemperance         | <input type="checkbox"/> _____               |

Note: Kindly enclose a sample of the teacher's contract blank used by your board.  
 Thank you.

11. During what month does regular reelection of teachers take place? Check one.

<input type="checkbox"/> February	<input type="checkbox"/> April	<input type="checkbox"/> June
<input type="checkbox"/> March	<input type="checkbox"/> May	<input type="checkbox"/> _____

12. For what reasons do teachers fail of reelection in your school? Check only those items which apply.

<input type="checkbox"/> Incompetence	<input type="checkbox"/> Trouble with pupils
<input type="checkbox"/> Intemperance	<input type="checkbox"/> Trouble with patrons
<input type="checkbox"/> Weak discipline	<input type="checkbox"/> Trouble with board members
<input type="checkbox"/> Poor instruction	<input type="checkbox"/> Faulty personality
<input type="checkbox"/> Poor preparation	<input type="checkbox"/> Wrong religious views for community
<input type="checkbox"/> Poor scholarship	<input type="checkbox"/> Frivolity or lack of stability
<input type="checkbox"/> Poor health	<input type="checkbox"/> Poor personal appearance
<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of cooperation	<input type="checkbox"/> Questionable recreational habits
<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of self control	<input type="checkbox"/> Friction with co-workers
<input type="checkbox"/> Disloyalty	<input type="checkbox"/> Too long tenure
<input type="checkbox"/> Insubordination	<input type="checkbox"/> Use of tobacco
<input type="checkbox"/> Immorality	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Immaturity	<input type="checkbox"/> _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Old age	<input type="checkbox"/> _____

#### IV. TEACHERS' SALARIES AND SALARY SCHEDULES

1. Do you definitely rate teachers as to quality of service rendered? . . . . . Yes No
2. If so, does this rating determine salary for next year? . . . . . Yes No
3. Are salary increases granted for acquiring additional professional preparation by any of the following means?
- |   |        |
|---|--------|
| a. Attending summer school. . . . .                                   | Yes No |
| b. Taking professional courses during term. . . . .                   | Yes No |
| c. Attending educational conferences during summer vacation . . . . . | Yes No |
| d. Educative travel . . . . .   | Yes No |

ave been made, which of the following methods have been re.

reduction  
reduction

Salaries above certain amount reduced

Each teacher's salary separately considered

Unmarried teachers' salaries reduced; married men's unchanged

Salaries of least efficient teachers reduced

5. Are there positions in your school system in which men receive higher salaries than women with equal duties, training, and experience? . . . . . Yes No

6. If question 5 is answered "yes", in what positions are such salary differentials found? Check only the items which apply.

Elementary teachers

Athletic coaches

Junior high school teachers

Elementary principals

Senior high school teachers

High school principal

Special instructors

7. If there are married men on your staff, do they, because of their married status, receive higher salaries than single men or women with equal duties, training and experience? . . . . . Yes No

8. If question 7 is answered "yes", in what positions are such salary differentials found? Check only the items which apply.

Elementary teachers

Athletic coaches

Junior high school teachers

Elementary principals

Senior high school teachers

High school principal

Special instructors

9. Over how many months does the payment of a teacher's annual salary extend?

Nine months

Eleven months

Ten months

Twelve months

10. In the event of a teacher's absence due to illness, death in the family, or similar causes, how is her salary paid? Check the correct item and answer the question.

Receives full salary. . . . .	For how long? _____
Receives half salary. . . . .	For how long? _____
Forfeits full salary. . . . .	For how long? _____
Board pays substitute. . . . .	For how long? _____
Teacher pays substitute. . . . .	For how long? _____
_____ . . . . .	For how long? _____

11. Do you employ a salary schedule in your school system? . . . . . Yes No

12. If you employ a salary schedule, what type is it? Check one.

Single salary schedule

Merit-reward salary schedule

13. If you employ a salary schedule, kindly indicate the minimum starting salary, the annual increment, and the maximum salary for each position indicated. If an 8-4 type of school, regard "junior high school" positions as upper grade positions.

Position	Starting salary	Annual increment	Maximum salary
Primary grades	_____	_____	_____
Intermediate grades	_____	_____	_____ &
Junior high school	_____	_____	_____
Senior high school	_____	_____	_____
Special instructors	_____	_____	_____

Note: Kindly enclose a copy of your salary schedule if you have one available in printed or mimeographed form. Thank you.



14. What type of school organization does your school system employ? Check one only.

       8-4 type

       6-3-3 type

       6-6 type

       6-2-4 type

       Grade school only

       County high school

#### V. THE STATUS OF MARRIED WOMEN TEACHERS

1. Does your board have a rule against the employment of married women teachers? Yes No
2. Does your board require women who marry during the term to resign at once? Yes No
3. Are teachers who marry dismissed at the expiration of their contracts? Yes No
4. Is the fact that a married woman may have children and an unemployed, disabled, or dependent husband regarded by your board as justification for her employment? Yes No
5. Are you opposed to the employment of married women? . . . . . Yes No

If you have married women in your school system, what is your estimation of the quality of their services, on the whole, in comparison with the unmarried women teachers? Check one only.

- They render decidedly superior service.
- They render slightly better service
- They render service of equal quality
- They render slightly inferior service
- They render decidedly inferior service

7. Underscore one (less, equal, more) in the following as they apply to married women teachers in comparison with unmarried women. Answer only if you have married women on your teaching staff.

- They give (less, equal, more) time to daily preparation of their school work.
- They give (less, equal, more) assistance to extra curricular activities.
- They are (less, equally, more) professional in their attitude.
- They have (less, equal, more) professional training.
- They take (less, equal, more) interest in their pupils.
- They take (less, equal, more) interest in the community.
- Check here if there are no married women on your faculty.

#### VI. THE PROBLEM OF HOME TALENT TEACHERS

1. Does your board have a rule against the employment of home talent teachers? Yes No
2. Does your board have a rule favoring the employment of home talent teachers? Yes No
3. Have non-resident teachers been dismissed to make room for home teachers? Yes No
4. Is the fact that a home talent teacher may have unemployed, aged, or disabled parents or dependents regarded by your board as justification for hiring her? Yes No
5. Are you opposed to the employment of home talent teachers? . . . . . Yes No
6. If you have home talent teachers in your school system, what is your estimation of the quality of their services, on the whole, in comparison, with non-resident teachers? Check one.

- They render decidedly superior service
- They render slightly better service
- They render service of equal quality
- They render slightly inferior service
- They render decidedly inferior service

7. Underscore one (less, equal, more) in the following as they apply to home talent teachers in comparison with non-resident teachers. Answer only if you have home talent teachers on your teaching staff.

- They give (less, equal, more) time to daily preparation of their school work.
- . . . . . more) assistance to extra curricular activities.
- . . . . . more) professional in their attitude.
- . . . . . more) professional training.
- . . . . . more) interest in their pupils.
- . . . . . more) interest in the community.
- Check here if you have no home talent teachers on your faculty.

## RELATIONSHIPS

1. Do you require teachers to assist with community activities? . . . . . Yes No
2. Do you require teachers to visit the homes of patrons? . . . . . Yes No
3. Does the board have rules regarding teachers' social conduct and activities out of school hours? . . . . . Yes No
4. Do you believe that teachers should be expected to lead model or exemplary lives in the community? . . . . . Yes No
5. Does your community expect teachers to lead model or exemplary lives? . . . . . Yes No
6. Does your community expect teachers to give their time and talent in assisting social, civic, and religious activities? . . . . . Yes No
7. Does your community expect teachers to contribute money to social, civic, and religious endeavors? . . . . . Yes No
8. Do non-resident teachers register as voters in your county? . . . . . Yes No
9. What community activities are teachers expected to assist, either with financial aid or time and talent? Check as many items as apply. Also encircle F or T or both before each blank to indicate whether financial aid or time and talent or both are expected.

F T <input type="checkbox"/> Church attendance	F T <input type="checkbox"/> Welfare or relief activities
F T <input type="checkbox"/> Ladies' Aid societies	F T <input type="checkbox"/> Social clubs
F T <input type="checkbox"/> Sunday School teaching	F T <input type="checkbox"/> Community clubs
F T <input type="checkbox"/> Church choirs and programs	F T <input type="checkbox"/> Parent-Teachers Association
F T <input type="checkbox"/> Boy Scouts	F T <input type="checkbox"/> Recreational activities
F T <input type="checkbox"/> Girl Scouts or Campfire Girls	F T <input type="checkbox"/> Local benefit programs
F T <input type="checkbox"/> Fraternal orders or lodges	F T <input type="checkbox"/> _____
F T <input type="checkbox"/> Civic or commercial clubs	F T <input type="checkbox"/> _____

10. What activities in your community are teachers expected to refrain from engaging in or patronizing. Check as many as apply.

<input type="checkbox"/> Public dances	<input type="checkbox"/> Mid week "dates"
<input type="checkbox"/> Public card parties	<input type="checkbox"/> Mid week theatre attendance
<input type="checkbox"/> Pool halls	<input type="checkbox"/> Mid week house parties
<input type="checkbox"/> Beer parlors	<input type="checkbox"/> Using tobacco
<input type="checkbox"/> Liquor stores	<input type="checkbox"/> Keeping company with high school students
<input type="checkbox"/> Gambling rooms	<input type="checkbox"/> Keeping company with socially undesirables
<input type="checkbox"/> Night clubs	_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Fraternal orders	_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Mid week dances	

## VII. COMMENTS AND SUGGESTIONS

Use this space to express any opinions which you may wish to regarding any of the questions raised in this questionnaire.

Sign (if you wish) \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_ 1935

Name of School \_\_\_\_\_